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THE DEVELOPMENT OF A MODEL FOR THE METROPOLITAN ST. LOUIS SOCIAL STUDIES CENTER.

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A PLAN WAS REPORTED FOR THE METROPOLITAN ST. LOUIS SOCIAL STUDIES CENTER. THIS AGENCY WAS ESTABLISHED (1) TO ANALYZE, IMPLEMENT, AND DIFFUSE NEW SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUMS IN THE ST. LOUIS AREA, AND (2) TO DEVELOP A UNIFIED ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SOCIAL SCIENCE CURRICULUM, GRADES 1-6. THE PROBLEMS OF IMPLEMENTING AND DISSEMINATING CURRICULUM INNOVATIONS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES WERE ANALYZED, AND A PLAN TO ESTABLISH AN INTERSCHOOL INNOVATION AGENCY ANALOGOUS TO AGRICULTURAL FIELD STATIONS WAS PRESENTED IN DETAIL. PLANS FOR FOUR "FIELD STATIONS" INVOLVING 28 SCHOOL SYSTEMS WERE DESCRIBED, INCLUDING PLANS FOR TRAINING OF TEACHERS AND FOR EVALUATING THE USEFULNESS OF THE FIELD STATION MODEL DESCRIBED. ONE SUCH FIELD STATION WAS IN OPERATION AT THE TIME OF REPORTING. THE REPORT ALSO ANALYZED AND DOCUMENTED THE SHORTCOMINGS OF THE PRESENT ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM, ESPECIALLY ITS FAILURE TO PROVIDE CHILDREN WITH THE SOCIAL SCIENCE KNOWLEDGE THAT WOULD EQUIP THEM TO COPE WITH CONTINUING SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CHANGE. BASED ON THIS ANALYSIS, A RATIONALE FOR THE NEW ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM WAS PRESENTED IN DETAIL. THE NEW CURRICULUM FOCUSES ON TEACHING AN UNDERSTANDING OF CONTEMPORARY DEMOCRACY AND THE SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CHANGES OF DEMOCRATIC AND NONDEMOCRATIC SOCIETIES. THE CURRICULUM ATTEMPTS TO PROVIDE CHILDREN WITH SOCIAL SCIENCE KNOWLEDGE AND THE INTELLECTUAL SKILLS NECESSARY FOR ANALYZING AND DEALING WITH SOCIAL, POLITICAL, AND ECONOMIC CONTROVERSY. THE SCOPE AND SEQUENCE OF THE CURRICULUM WAS PRESENTED, AND A SAMPLE UNIT WAS DESCRIBED. A COMPREHENSIVE CURRICULUM EVALUATION MODEL WAS ALSO PROPOSED AND OUTLINED. (TC)

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF A MODEL FOR THE METROPOLITAN ST. LOUIS SOCIAL STUDIES CENTER

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THE DEVELOPMENT
OF A MODEL
FOR THE
METROPOLITAN ST. LOUIS
SOCIAL STUDIES CENTER

Project No. Z-004
Contract OE 5-10-313

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FOREWORD

The Metropolitan St. Louis Social Studies Center was created through the cooperation of the Educational Council for Responsible Citizenship, the Graduate Institute of Education of Washington University, and the school districts of St. Louis County and the City of St. Louis. Since its beginning the Center has attempted to provide leadership and active support for the improvement in the teaching of the social studies in the schools of Metropolitan St. Louis. A Developmental Activities Grant from the United States Office of Education, funds from the Educational Council for Responsible Citizenship and Washington University provided the support necessary to clarify the potential role of the Metropolitan St. Louis Social Studies Center and to develop explicit plans for a metropolitan agency for the dissemination, implementation, and development of social studies curricula. The Center staff, with the advice and counsel of the Supervisory Committee of the Educational Council for Responsible Citizenship, beginning in September, 1964, concentrated on the development of two distinct proposals. The first was a plan for an inter-school agency which would facilitate a systematic and effective implementation of new social studies curricula in the schools of Metropolitan St. Louis. As a part of this plan, the Center staff began work on the development of criteria for the analysis of presently used and newly developed social studies curricula. In addition, the plan called for the establishment of a social studies library which would collect the products of the national social studies curriculum development centers. In summary, the first aim was to develop a plan for an inter-school agency which included provisions for development of criteria for the analysis of curriculum, and the development of a resource center. Beginning in September, 1965, the first stages of the plan were put into effect, and the resource center was established at McMillan Hall, Washington University.

The second plan called for the development of a new elementary school social science curriculum. The first stage of this proposal was also put into effect with the cooperation of the St. Louis City public schools.

In the subsequent months the Center staff with support of the Developmental Activities Grant, continued to develop detailed plans for both proposals. By September, 1966, the planning stage was completed and some of the work initiated. This report summarizes the plans and completed work. The volume is organized as follows: Chapter I analyzes the need for and problems of disseminating and implementing new social studies curricula in a metropolitan area, and Chapter II presents a detailed plan to meet these problems in the Metropolitan St. Louis area. Chapter III analyzes the problems and issues in the teaching of the social sciences at the elementary school level and provides a rationale for the development of an elementary school curriculum with a new focus. This curriculum is outlined in Chapter IV. Chapter V reviews some of the pertinent scholarly literature which has contributed to our analyses of the problems in Chapter I and III and our proposed solution given in Chapters II and IV. The problems of devising a plan for evaluating success of our proposals is discussed in Chapter VI.

Since the completion of the project in September, 1966, work has continued on both of these proposals. Six St. Louis area schools, with the support of the Central Midwestern Regional Educational Laboratory, have begun work on the first phases of the "field station" plan. The Cooperating Schools of Metropolitan St. Louis have submitted a Title III proposal under the Elementary and Secondary Education Acts to continue the later phases of the first "field station" activities and to establish four new field stations. That proposal, submitted to the U. S. Office of Education in January, 1967, is based in large part on the plan outlined in Chapter II. Work on the Elementary School Social Science Curriculum also continues, but without federal support, under the auspices of Washington University Graduate Institute of Education and the St. Louis Public Schools. The future of both projects is in doubt until adequate long range financing can be found.

CHAPTER I.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEMS OF THE DISSEMINATION AND IMPLEMENTATION OF NEW SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULA

At present there are thirty groups of scholars and professional educators devising and experimenting with new materials, curriculum ideas, and teaching strategies in the social sciences and history. What they are developing or have developed holds a great deal of promise as alternatives to the routine, intellectually sterile approach to the teaching of history and the social sciences which is prevalent in the schools today. To date, however, the impact of social studies curriculum projects has been minimal and in our view the prospects for the future are not encouraging to those who believe some changes are necessary.

Our pessimism is based in part on the fact that, as far as we know, none of the projects have developed a systematic pattern for moving beyond experimental trials to effective implementation on a large scale. At present, these new curricula probably involve no more than several thousand students and perhaps a hundred or more teachers. Many project directors have publicly and privately expressed their concern about the lack of a strategy for disseminating and instituting their work on a wide scale. They probably feel, and rightly, that the sheer enormity of the task defies easy analysis and solution. Certainly we do not take the curriculum projects to task because they have so few plans for implementation. The major goal of these projects has been to develop and not to implement and disseminate; yet the problem remains. With few exceptions, the projects not only have no plans for implementation, but they have few resources to develop and effect such plans.

A second reason for our pessimism arises from the very nature of the new social studies curricula projects. Many projects can be described as "supplemental." That is, they do not see their function as creating new courses, but rather as creating materials and ideas that may be used to support or modify present courses. Yet, it is quite obvious that we cannot add to the curriculum as we would to a pile of logs. Courses must have some intellectual coherence and integrity, and not be merely a collection of interesting materials. There must be some integration of these new materials into a coherent program if the materials are to be of any value. Virtually all projects that consider their major task to be the development of supplementary materials leave the matter of how to use their materials to the schools. And, while we do not condemn these projects for this policy, it does raise again the same question of how schools are to make wise use of these materials, particularly in view of their present pattern of curriculum revision. We should point out that there are schools with unusually competent staffs, which can make good use of these and other materials with little special effort. Unfortunately, these are rare. For most situations, unless special provisions are made, the curriculum materials, if they are used at all, are likely to be handled routinely.

Finally, the way in which the new social studies projects have tended to work raises additional problems for achieving an effective implementation. In order for the schools to make rational decisions, they must know, first, whether they agree with what the curriculum intends to do, and, second, whether there is any evidence that the curriculum will likely achieve what is intended when transplanted to a new setting. To make the former judgment the schools must have available to them clear and detailed statements of the goals of general education that are implied by the curriculum, and the rationale that underlies these choices. The rationale should include an explicit statement of the underlying social theory, epistemological position, and criteria for selection of content and intellectual skills. Since detailed rationales are missing from most of the new curricula, the school system must make inferences from the materials, which is an extraordinarily difficult task. In order for the school authorities to make the latter judgment, that is whether the curriculum does what it intends to do, and will likely work in their school, they must have available from the projects detailed knowledge of the results the curriculum projects have achieved in the experimental and field trials. Unfortunately, few of the curriculum projects have made public their plans for systematic, rigorous, evaluation of the effects of their curriculum materials in the experimental situation. Where no evidence is provided, the schools must make their own provisions for evaluation. Our position is that something must be done in order to solve these problems if the schools are to be able to make intelligent choices and effectively implement the new social studies curricula.

Even if the foregoing problems were to disappear, another serious problem remains. The existing pattern of school curriculum revision is itself a barrier to change. In other words, the mechanism which the school now uses for revising social studies curricula does not work in most instances. The common procedure of curriculum revision in the schools is for a school official to charge a committee of teachers with "revising the curriculum." "Revising the curriculum" means developing a new K-12 framework, which serves as a curriculum guide. The resulting document generally will include some suggested activities, a bibliography, and, on occasion, some test items. In very few instances are materials written for the students and there is rarely an attempt to develop any carefully conceived teaching strategies consistent with the materials and the framework. In virtually no case are there any pilot trials conducted under even approximate experimental conditions to determine whether there must be a revision (or abandonment) of the framework before the document is given to all the teachers in the system. In many instances, probably most, the curriculum committee is given the task of revising the curriculum within a year, and the committee usually have neither the time, the resources, nor the training to do more than rearrange labels.

We do not dismiss the work of such committees. Undoubtedly they serve the purpose of establishing some minimal uniformity and articulation of the curriculum which is especially important in a large school system. But we do contend that this general style of curriculum revision does not have the potential for substantially improving the quality of intellectual discourse that takes place daily in the classroom between teacher and student. There are curriculum revision committees in virtually every school system, yet there is little evidence that teaching in the classroom has responded to this style of curriculum revision. One indication of the failure of the school in the innovation of curriculum can be seen in what has occurred in the areas of mathematics and foreign language instruction. In both areas there have been substantial changes in the last several years. But these changes were not initiated by schools, but by agencies outside the schools.

The design of curriculum, the writing of materials, and planning of teaching strategies is complex and difficult. In the few instances that schools attempt it, they often find that it requires the assistance of a specialist. A university consultant may be called on for several days. Aside from the question of whether the consultants can accomplish anything in a few days, there are two serious drawbacks to the present system of consultantships. First, there are not enough willing and able consultants available from the universities for all schools or school systems. For instance, in the metropolitan St. Louis area there are approximately 30 separate public school districts. Superintendents will testify to the difficulty of finding consultants who can provide the kind of long-term help the schools may require. Second, the university consultants, on a short-term basis, tend to be engaged by the higher income suburban systems, yet ironically, the school systems that most need help are least likely to receive it from the university.

The curriculum committee and the occasional use of university consultants is not the only problem inherent in the present pattern of curriculum revision. The failure to achieve effective and lasting change can also be attributed to the problem of getting effective leadership from school administrators, from teachers, and from university faculty.

The Curriculum Leadership Problem in the Schools at the Administrative Level.

Curriculum decisions within the school are nominally centralized in the hands of the superintendent, who delegates it to a curriculum director or to the director of a system-wide curriculum division. The diversity, complexity and efficacy of the curriculum coordinator's position in the school is not our concern here. He obviously fulfills a necessary role in the school. We are interested here only in the role of the curriculum director as an innovator of social studies curricula. We have already commented on the strategy of curriculum revision normally employed by the curriculum coordinator and its deficiencies, why does the curriculum coordinator not develop more effective strategies? To a large degree he has no alternative. He is responsible for the entire curriculum, and he cannot possibly have specialized knowledge in all subject areas. If he has had graduate training, it is as a curriculum generalist and he does not have specialized knowledge of history, social or behavioral science. As a consequence, he is forced to operate at a level of rhetoric that is overgeneralized and not especially helpful to the writing of the social studies curriculum, or he must depend almost wholly on the expertise of others, either the teachers or part-time consultants. At very best, he can facilitate curriculum change, but he cannot create the innovation, or himself solve many of the more specialized problems of implementation.

Where the school system is fortunate enough to have a social studies specialist who has the requisite training in the social and behavioral sciences, and social studies curriculum, there is a danger that he will lose his credentials as an expert unless he maintains contact with a group of colleagues who can serve as a constant source of criticism and new ideas. At present, it is the university that has the potential to provide an association with colleagues that is so necessary if the social studies specialist in the schools is to remain in touch with social science and with new developments in social studies curriculum. In general, universities and colleges, however, have not been especially responsive or perhaps able to develop a close relationship with school faculties.

The Curriculum Leadership Problem at the Teaching Level.

Many, probably most, curriculum decisions are made by the teacher. What transpires daily between teacher and class is, of course, of primary importance, and any curriculum cannot be said to be "implemented" unless there is some change in the transaction between teacher and student. It is our contention that most social studies teachers are immune to the ferment in social studies curriculum. The reasons are not difficult to discover.

Social studies elementary and secondary teachers have an extraordinarily demanding task if they attempt to do their job well. It is easy to criticize the teacher for not keeping up with recent knowledge in academic fields, and in curriculum, but when we consider, for instance, that the theories, findings, and methods of the newer and older social sciences are changing to the point where trained university social scientists express dismay over keeping abreast, it is to be expected that teachers, who at best may have earned a Master's degree at a good institution, will have greater difficulty. Even the most devoted, well-educated teacher does not have the time for writing new curricula, learning and trying new approaches, and maintaining some degree of contact with developments in his primary discipline.

While it is true that competent professionals in all fields are probably overworked, what makes it more difficult for the teacher is that he is not a part of a large community of colleagues upon whom he may depend for ideas and criticism. The teacher and the curriculum director, because of the nature of their job and the administrative organization of the school, rarely develop a legitimate colleague relationship within the school. Only an extraordinary person can continue to make a creative contribution without the critical appraisal of a peer who has worked on similar problems. What is necessary for teachers is a continuing mechanism which will provide a system of colleagueship so that they do not become ingrown and self-satisfied. As new curricula are developed in the social studies, there is an especially pressing need for continuing intellectual discourse among teachers. Whether the new curricula replace much of what is irrelevant and worthless in today's social studies program depends upon this kind of dialogue, and opportunities for this needed dialogue do not presently exist in most schools.

The University's Role in Educating Leaders in Social Science Curriculum.

There is a shortage of specialists in social science education in the schools and universities. The absence of such specialists is in part due to the absence of post-masters programs in universities that combine first-rate training in social and behavioral sciences with practical experience of how to apply this knowledge to school problems. Most curriculum programs in universities train generalists without intensive social science or behavioral science background. In order for the prospective social science or curriculum specialist to learn how to apply his knowledge to the complexities of school curriculum problems, and in order for him to learn the difficulties of designing new curriculum materials, opportunities should be built into doctoral programs to make this possible. There are at present a number of social studies curriculum experts in the field who desire this experience and who would profit from intensive work in social studies curriculum design and implementation. These individuals within school systems, state departments of education, and other educational agencies should have opportunities to work more closely with the new curricula. At present, when such opportunities exist, they are usually open only to present university doctoral students.

The Problem of the Analysis of Social Studies Curricula.

We have said that if a school system wants to judge the worth or "evaluate" a new curriculum, they would want to know does the curriculum purport to achieve anything worthwhile and does the curriculum achieve what it purports to achieve. The difference between these two questions must be clearly understood, and a simple analogy may clarify the distinction. We may ask whether the atom bomb does what it is supposed to do, that is, explode. However, it is quite another matter to ask the question of whether we should explode atom bombs or in what circumstances and conditions they should be exploded. The first question raises wholly empirical issues; the second question raises a complex of questions including basic ethical problems about the value of human life and the good society. A teacher or educational policy-maker must deal with both types of curriculum issues.

In our view the schools need some guidelines to assist them in making both types of judgments. While both questions are difficult, we make a proposal and present a tentative outline for a handbook which may provide some help to schools and individual teachers in making judgments about new and old social studies curricula. This handbook is intended to assist the teacher in making the qualitative judgments about the adequacy of the objectives and the rationale for the objectives.

The Problem of the Schools' Access to New Curricula Materials.

Even if school leadership problems were to be solved, existing patterns of curriculum reform were to be changed, and the schools were to develop an explicit rationale to guide their curriculum decisions, one further problem remains. Most schools are not easily able to get access to the material from the curriculum projects across the country. The projects would be so overwhelmed with requests from curriculum revision committees that they could not respond except with a perfunctory letter. And, as noted earlier, the projects are largely devoted to developing new curricula, not to implementation.

One potential source of help for this problem is the Regional Educational Laboratories. Yet their present form of organization--

one central office for each region--makes it impractical for the Laboratories to take on this task unless there is some decentralization. What is needed for metropolitan areas like St. Louis is a single inter-school curriculum library or "resource center" which is no more than an hour's drive from any school. This library can develop working arrangements with the curriculum projects and with the publishing world. It can collect sample materials, working papers, units, audio-visual aids, supplementary materials, etc., which are relevant to project curricula and published programs. The resource center would maintain a selective collection of relevant research in social studies instruction,and results of the efforts of curriculum development centers. In short, such a center can serve two valuable functions. Through its working arrangements with curriculum projects, it can provide the necessary materials to facilitate the work of curriculum analysis, dissemination, and implementation in a metropolitan area. And, for those school systems which, for whatever reasons, find it impossible or impractical to pursue some systematic pattern of curriculum revision, the materials collection in a resource library would afford them some opportunity to become acquainted with new ideas and materials in the social studies.

Summary

This chapter has analyzed some of the major problems related to the dissemination and implementation of new social studies curricula. Problems related to the national curriculum projects include the limited clientele the projects serve, and the lack of adequate implementation plans beyond a limited geographic area. Some of the inadequacies of existing patterns of curriculum revision in the schools have been cited. Curriculum revision committees have been unable to cope adequately with the demands for effective curriculum reform and a serious leadership problem exists at the school administrative level, at the teaching level, and at the level of school-university relationships. The absence of criteria which will assist schools in making curriculum decisions is also serious. Finally, the schools' lack of access to new curricula materials acts as an additional obstacle to reasonable and effective reform.

In Chapter II, this report will propose the creation of an inter-school curriculum implementation project which is an effort to meet some of the problems noted in this chapter.

CHAPTER II

A PROPOSAL FOR THE DISSEMINATION AND IMPLEMENTATION OF NEW SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULA IN METROPOLITAN ST. LOUIS

Introduction

The problems related to the dissemination and implementation of new social studies curricula are so interrelated that a comprehensive solution seems to be required, a plan which confronts simultaneously as many problems as possible. In our opinion, what is necessary and what we propose is a new mechanism--an inter-school agency--which will work cooperatively with the schools to put into practice the products of social science curriculum research and development. Such an agency must be staffed by professionals who are able to work closely with university scholars and the representatives of the curriculum projects, thus bridging two gaps--between schools and the university community, and between the schools and the curriculum projects. The staff of this agency must be well versed in the problems of the schools, the issues in social studies education, and the nature of the social sciences. Finally, the new mechanism must be able to draw upon the intellectual resources in university communities in order to benefit from current progress in the social science disciplines.

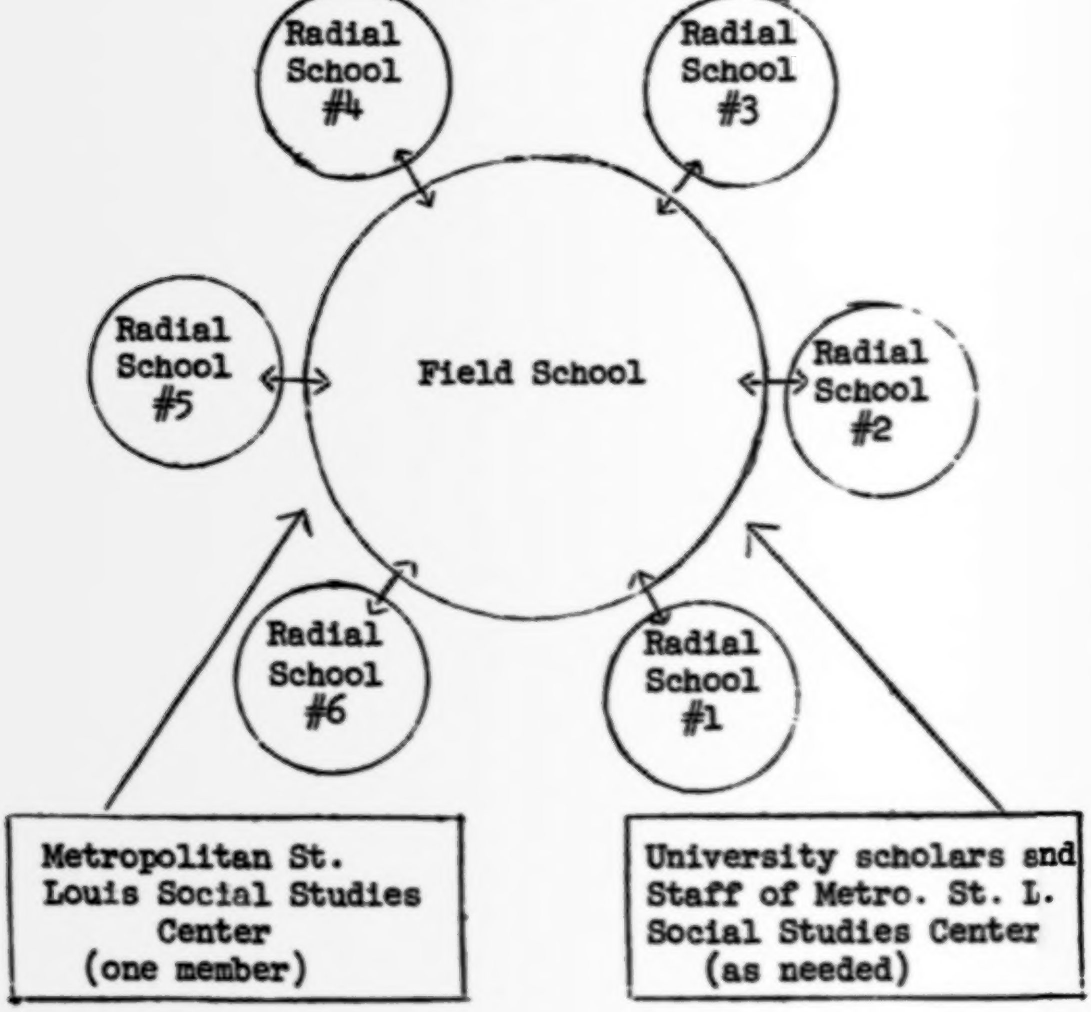
Although not common in the field of education, agencies devoted to bridging the gap between new knowledge and practice are well accepted in other fields. In the areas of agriculture and medicine, which also face the problem of discrepancy between new ideas and field practice, it is not assumed that the researcher and developer of new techniques and practices must himself carry his ideas through the implementation stage. Agriculture has developed the field station and the county agent system to insure implementation of new ideas. In medicine, the university affiliated hospital serves as an important continuing mechanism for the application and diffusion of new medical knowledge. We do not hold either of these arrangements as ideal and we realize that these analogies to medicine and agriculture are not exact. These instances do indicate that it is not beyond human ingenuity to design a means of bridging the gap between social studies curriculum knowledge and classroom practice.

The Dissemination-Implementation Project.

A Dissemination-Implementation project was established within the Metropolitan St. Louis Social Studies Center in 1965, shortly after the award of the Education Developmental Activities grant.

The purpose of the Dissemination-Implementation Model is to implement new curricula systematically into schools in the metropolitan St. Louis area. This agency will create demonstration, implementation and dissemination centers (hereafter called Field Stations) in the schools and integrate into these centers a continuing program for training social studies curriculum leaders.[1] The operation of this model Field Station is as follows: The Field Station is organized from the metropolitan St. Louis area schools with the assistance of the staff from the Metropolitan St. Louis Social Studies Center (subsequently referred to as the Central Implementation Staff). The "Field Station" consists of two groups of schools: (a) a single school (field school) where the analysis, development and pilot of a curriculum will take place; and, (b) four to six additional schools (radial schools) which engage in the curriculum implementation activities of the Field Station.

Figure II-1.


Radial School #4
Radial School #3
Radial School #5
Field School
Radial School #2
Radial School #6
Radial School #1
Metropolitan St. Louis Social Studies Center (one member)
University scholars and Staff of Metro. St. L. Social Studies Center (as needed)

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[1] One such Field Station has been created, and is now operating through the support of the Central Midwestern Regional Educational Laboratory. This Field Station includes the following schools or school systems: Hazelwood School District; Lindbergh School District; Lutheran High School, North; University City Schools, and Ritenour School District.

A Field Station includes the following persons: One member of the Central Implementation Staff, who has had experience in the schools and is knowledgeable in both the social sciences and in the teaching of social studies. This individual will coordinate and provide the initial leadership for the Field Station. Two master teachers or "clinical associates" from the field school and two master teachers (clinical associates) from each of the radial schools will be selected from the faculties of the seven or eight cooperating schools who have agreed to work cooperatively within a Field Station. In addition, there will be one administrative liaison agent (principal, etc.) from each field and radial school to represent their schools when key administrative decisions must be made. Interns and apprentices from Washington University and other institutions will have an opportunity to acquire some of their training in the Field Station. Finally, social science scholars and evaluation specialists from adjacent universities and colleges will be called in to provide the specialized assistance needed in order to conduct systematic analyses of the products of the social science curriculum development projects. These scholars will be called upon to conduct short courses in social science areas related to the curricula that will be implemented.

The Central Implementation Staff: The critical role in the operation of the Field Station is held by the Central Implementation Staff. This staff has the responsibility for leadership in the creation of the Field Station, the coordination of all the training programs, the relationships with the schools and curriculum projects, the continuing collection and analysis of new social science curricula, and the evaluation and conduct of research in all Field Stations. The major staff members will be a number of specialists in social science curriculum, a sociologist or psychologist whose major field is change process, a measurement specialist, and an administrator. In some instances, the Central Staff will simultaneously hold university faculty appointments.

Cooperation Between the Dissemination-Implementation Model and the National Curriculum Projects: The Metropolitan St. Louis Social Studies Center has already established working relationships with many of the national curriculum projects, both those funded by the United States Office of Education, and those funded by other organizations. A Field Station will analyze the curriculum materials and approaches developed by several of the national projects and select one project to be implemented. Representatives from the national projects will be contracted to provide assistance during several of the phases of the Station's activities.

Figure II-2.

Diagram Showing Phases of A Field Station
and Year They are to be Initiated.

Year of Project	Field Station #1	Field Stations #2 and 3	Field Station #4
I	ANALYSIS and DEVELOPMENT	(Note: present plans call for additional field stations in the future.)	
II	PILOT	ANALYSIS and DEVELOPMENT	
III	DIFFUSION (pilot continues)	PILOT	ANALYSIS and DEVELOPMENT
IV	DIFFUSION (pilot continues)	DIFFUSION (pilot continues)	PILOT
V	DIFFUSION (pilot continues)	DIFFUSION (pilot continues)	DIFFUSION (pilot continues)

The Functioning of the Field Station: The tasks of the major members of the Field Stations will vary according to the four stages of the Field Station's activities. These stages are: Analysis, Development, Pilot, and Diffusion. We have indicated earlier that a Field Station Staff will be comprised of one implementation staff member, two master teachers from the field school, two each from the radial schools, administrative personnel from the school systems, interns and observers, occasional consultants (social scientists, representatives from the national projects and measurement specialists). The following discussion includes only those who have central responsibilities. They are: the Implementation Staff member of the Center, the field school clinical associates, and radial school clinical associates.

Phase One, Analysis (Year One): The basic task is to analyze two or more new social studies curricula and select one to pilot. The major tasks of the staff members are:

Central Implementation Staff Member tasks: The implementation staff member will assume a leadership role in the process of curriculum analysis and teach the master teachers to analyze curricula with the help of the Handbook for Curriculum Analysis. He will participate in the selection of a curriculum to be piloted. If extra instruction is required because of the social science content of the curriculum, he will provide it or arrange for university consultants in the social sciences to provide it. Finally, he will maintain liaison with the Central Implementation staff and supervise interns and apprentices at all stages of their work.

The Field School Clinical Associates' tasks: The master teachers must learn the process of analysis using the Handbook for Curriculum Analysis. After the analysis of two or more curricula, they will participate in the selection of one curriculum to pilot. If there is a social science area in which they need instruction they will participate in short courses or summer institutes conducted by university social scientists. Finally, the Field School master teachers will observe and/or teach a limited number of demonstration classes using materials of the curricula under analysis. This will assist in the decision as to which curriculum will be piloted.

Radial Clinical Associates: In the analysis phase the role of the radial school member is essentially the same as the Field School master teacher member's noted above, but the involvement will be necessarily less intense because their time commitment will be less.

Phase Two, Development (Year One and Summer): There are three basic tasks. It is probable that modification of the curriculum selected for piloting will be necessary as a result of the analysis. The first task will be to rewrite any curriculum materials and make any changes in teaching strategy deemed necessary. Second, training for teaching the pilot curriculum must be acquired. Third, the necessary administrative and evaluative procedures must be arranged.

Implementation Staff Member tasks: In the development stage, his primary task continues to be one of leadership. He will have the duty of arranging for in-service training, seminars, and summer institutes. In working on the curriculum, he will provide assistance in writing and modifying curriculum materials, and in developing additional teaching strategies. Finally, at the end of this phase the Center member will write a comprehensive report which describes the decisions made in the analysis and development phases, and the justifications for those decisions.

Field Station and Radial School Clinical Associates' Tasks: The clinical associates from both the Field Station and radial schools will have the major responsibility for making modifications in the materials or teaching strategies of the curriculum selected for piloting and for developing additional teaching strategies. They will participate in in-service training programs for pilot teaching, and will plan for evaluation of the curriculum in terms of its objectives.

Phase Three, Pilot (Year Two): The basic tasks are to teach the new curriculum in two experimental classrooms in the field school, begin systematic evaluation, and to plan for the pilot teaching in the radial schools (Years Two, Three, Four and Five).

The Implementation Staff Member tasks: He will participate in the daily planning for teaching the pilot as well as do some teaching. He will participate in critique sessions with the field school master teacher and radial school master teachers. He will assist in developing curriculum modifications which result from the pilot, and arrange for any additional training and for consultation with social science experts when required. He will continue to provide leadership for evaluative tasks and will begin to shift other implementation responsibilities to the field school master teachers. He will assist in further training of radial staff members in preparation for their pilot program.

Field Station Clinical Associates' tasks: The Field Station clinical associates will be primarily responsible for planning, teaching, and evaluation of the curriculum being piloted. In addition, they will assist in training radial clinical associates by providing teaching opportunities and serving in training institutes and on writing teams.

Radial School Clinical Associates' tasks: Radial clinical associates will prepare to pilot the curriculum in their schools and will assist in evaluation of the field school pilot, in writing and modifying materials, and will secure additional training in preparation for their own pilot

Phase Four, Diffusion (Years Three, Four, and Five): The basic tasks are to diffuse the curriculum to the radial schools where the curriculum will be implemented in two classes in each of the radial schools.

> Implementation Staff Member tasks: In the diffusion phase, he will exercise leadership and will assist the radial staff as in Year One of the pilot phase. He will also be responsible for assisting in the evaluation of the activities in both field and radial schools as well as writing final reports of curriculum implementation in the field and radial schools.
>
> Field School Clinical Associates' tasks: They will continue to pilot the curriculum and evaluate the results in the third, fourth and fifth years as required by the curriculum selected. They will observe in the radial schools and assist in planning and teaching. The field school master teachers will also continue to participate in summer training and curriculum modification programs.
>
> Radial School Clinical Associates' tasks: They will begin pilot teaching of the curriculum in the radial school, and continue for two years. In addition, they will administer and participate in curriculum evaluation and continue to work with the Field Station Staff. (It will be noted that the field schools are one year ahead in the teaching of the curriculum.)

Handbook for Curriculum Analysis

We have argued that schools need a variety of supports in order to make substantive changes in curricula. Choosing among the new curricular alternatives will become increasingly difficult as curriculum development centers make available to the schools the results of their work. The task of making educational policy requires both theoretical and practical judgments. The Central Staff of the Implementation Project does not presume they can or should decide what should be the social studies curriculum for a school. Rather, what the Center proposes is to write a document of approximately 50 pages that will assist the Field Station staff in raising the major theoretical questions in social studies curricula. The document, or handbook, it should be emphasized, raises the issues and attempts to suggest some criteria which will assist the Field Station staff in choosing among curriculum alternatives. Following is a tentative outline of the Handbook.

Working Draft of Handbook for Curriculum Analysis[*]

I. The Uses of this Handbook
  An introductory section which includes a historical sketch of the Metropolitan St. Louis Social Studies Center, the part the handbook plays in implementation, the assumptions made by the writers, and the limitations of the document.

II. Rationale
  2.0 Introduction--importance of debate on rationale, brief statement of purpose.
  2.1 What is Rationale--a preliminary definition: a set of propositions, normative and empirical, logically related, supported by reasoned analysis that provides reasonable explicit criteria. Basis for
    a) selecting content
    b) ordering content
    c) writing or selecting teaching material
    d) laying out alternative modes of teaching that are consistent and complement the substance of what is taught.
  2.12 The importance of rationale for the curriculum builder (Evident from 2.1)
  2.13 The importance of rationale for the Consumer (school system curriculum policy makers--most important policy maker is still the teacher) is that
    a) by laying out an explicit reasoned case, they are helped in locating weaknesses in the arguments
    b) by laying out the assumptions, empirical and normative, and the reasons for these assumptions, they can judge whether they agree or disagree with the curricular position they are intended to support
    c) it provides a basis for examining the criteria for selection of content and teaching strategies
    d) it provides a basis for judging the consistency between the criteria and the materials and teaching strategies.
  3.1 What a Rationale is Not
    3.11 Not a list of objectives
      3.111 Critique of lists of objectives
        a) Curriculum guide (in school)
        b) NCSS 12 themes
    3.12 Not a Philosophy of Education
      3.121 Limitations of "traditional" Philosophy of Education (distinguish history from philosophy)
      3.122 Limitations of "analysis" school

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[*] The outline to 5.26 inclusive is a writing outline. 6.0 forward has yet to be worked on in detail.

- 4.1 Forms of the Rationale
  - 4.11 non-written
  - 4.12 partially written (in Fenton's teachers' manuals, scattered)
  - 4.13 very general or incomplete (e.g., Dewey; Bruner; Smith, Stanley and Shores; Kimball and McClelland)
  - 4.14 Do we accept a curriculum without a rationale
    - 4.141 Why we must but why it is not desirable
- 5.1 Presentation of Rationale
  - 5.11 Rationale #1 (Oliver)
  - 5.12 Rationale #2 (Senesh)
  - 5.13 Rationale #3 (Hutchins)
  - 5.14 Fenton; Hunt and Metcalf
- 5.2 Comparison of the Rationales (What they have in common)

  Rationales appear in many diverse forms; not all raise the same issues. Yet there are types of issues that recur in many that can be subject to scrutiny.
  - 5.21 a position on what education is for
  - 5.22 a conception of the "good" society
  - 5.23 a conception of the good man
  - 5.24 empirical assumptions about what society is, and is becoming
  - 5.25 empirical assumptions about what man is
  - 5.26 assumptions about the nature of knowledge in the social sciences and the nature of knowing
  - 5.27 assumptions about the nature of thinking
  - 5.28 assumptions about how man learns

III. Rationale--Examination

- 6.0 How this section is to function and what not to expect
- 7.0 The basic goals of education

  A survey of the usual position taken with respect to the ends of education - - relies heavily on previous discussion of alternative positions, for example: Also an effort will be made to show how all curricula, even those that purport to have "no philosophy" do indeed have one
- 8.0 The good man, the good society

  Show (briefly) how the traditional philosophies take positions--relate to contemporary curricula.
- 9.0 What Society Is--Is Becoming

  A survey of some recent social criticism focusing primarily on political and economic changes--(curriculum examples)
- 10.0 What Man Is

  A brief review of what we know about human behavior and how man behaves in groups, what motivates him, how he learns. The major purpose is to show that given our present knowledge it places few constraints on what we may attempt to do: It does alert us to some and teach us some important lessons about human behavior (curriculum examples)

IV. Nature of Knowledge, Knowing, and Thinking
    11.1 The levels of knowledge
    11.2 The relationship between knowledge and thinking
    11.3 Ethical issues--value questions
    11.4 The nature of the social science disciplines--distinction between findings; theoretical structures; and the conduct of inquiry.
        Geography
        Political Science
        Jurisprudence
        Anthropology
        History
        Sociology
        Economics
            Schools and controversies within the disciplines
            The conduct of inquiry
            The treatment of value--policy vs. pure science
    11.5 Curriculum Examples
        Senesh
        Oliver
        ESI
V. 12.0 The Consistency of Rationale to Selection of Content and Teaching Strategy
        12.1 Argument of why this issue is important
        12.2 Examples of its absence
        12.3 Examples of its presence

The Curriculum Resource Center

In order to provide Field Stations with curriculum materials to analyze and implement, the Metropolitan St. Louis Social Studies Center has entered into working agreements with many of the national curriculum projects funded by the United States Office of Education, and by foundations. These agreements have permitted us to acquire curriculum materials from all over the country, and to house them in one location. The materials include brief position papers, sample units, audio-visual aids, and full courses, including student readings, teachers' manuals, and supplementary materials. Curriculum materials from over thirty-nine different sources, including a few commercial publications, have been collected. This collection constitutes the Curriculum Resource Center of the project, located in McMillan Hall at Washington University.

Although the Field Stations make maximum use of the Resource Center, it has permitted us to provide a number of supplemental services for social studies personnel in the metropolitan St. Louis area. A number of school systems will not enter into Field Station arrangements. Some school systems had already begun curriculum revision, and believed they had the human and financial resources to achieve their goals. Other schools are concerned about segments of the curriculum (e.g., grades 4, 5, 6) other than that with which the Field Station may be working. Problems of finance have acted as deterrents for some schools. Nonetheless, the Curriculum Resource Center is open to all schools and a large number have taken advantage of this facility. Through publication of a Newsletter and informal contacts, the Center has encouraged the use of its materials collection. At least three area schools which have begun major curriculum revisions have been influenced by use of the Resource Center. There has also been interest outside the metropolitan St. Louis area. Several Title III Demonstration Centers from Illinois have sent staff to use the facilities, and curriculum specialists from as far as Maryland and California have come to make use of the collection.

Another supplemental service to local school personnel has been the publication of an occasional "Newsletter ." The purpose of a newsletter is to inform interested persons of the Center's activities, and to encourage them to avail themselves of the Center's resources. Two newsletters were published in 1965-66. Distribution was confined largely to the metropolitan St. Louis area; however, copies were sent to all social studies project directors, and a mailing list of interested people is maintained.

The Curriculum Analysis Seminars

The Center's primary solution to the problem of dissemination and implementation is the complex of activity centered around the Field Station. However, as has been noted, all local school systems cannot participate in the Field Station. In order to make teachers and curriculum directors aware of the complexity of curriculum decision-making, the Center sponsored two Curriculum Analysis Seminars in 1965-66, and plans to sponsor additional seminars in the future. The objective of these seminars is obviously much more limited than those of the field stations; nevertheless, it is an important one. Both seminars raised basic questions designed to permit the participants to see the several issues involved in rational curriculum decision-making.

The first seminar examined the social studies elementary school curriculum developed by Lawrence E. Senesh, Purdue University, in cooperation with the Elkhart, Indiana public schools. Twenty-five elementary teachers and curriculum directors representing twenty-three area school systems participated. Irving Morrissett, Director of the Social Science Education Consortium, and Sister Carl Marie Mueller of Webster College represented the Senesh Curriculum. The second seminar examined the social studies curriculum being developed by Edwin Fenton and John Good at Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, both of whom were present to represent their project. Twenty-eight teachers and curriculum directors from twenty-two area school systems participated. Scholar-specialists in the social science areas relevant to the curriculum under analysis were present on both occasions. At each seminar the representatives of the curriculum presented position papers. These were critiqued by Center Staff members, by scholar-specialists, and by teacher participants. In addition, demonstration classes were set up which permitted participants to see the curriculum materials used in the classroom and provided additional bases for critiquing the proposed curriculum.

Every effort was made to achieve the primary objective of the seminars--to make curriculum decision-makers aware of the complexity of their task. A pre-seminar preparation package was developed. The package included position papers of the curriculum developers, papers dealing with the nature of the major discipline involved in the curriculum under analysis, and sample curriculum materials. Each seminar was designed so that an intellectual dialogue could take place between curriculum developers, scholar-specialists, Center staff, and teachers. This dialogue took place within the context of an actual curriculum and raised key issues related to decision-making, e.g., whether history is a matter of interpretation based upon the frame of reference of the historian, or whether history is objective and can be used for limited prediction of public events. Questions of this nature demonstrated that theoretical issues affect the actual content of lessons, the kind of classroom discourse which takes place under the auspices of the curriculum, and the overall cognitive and affective goals of the curriculum.

These Curriculum Analysis Seminars will continue. A third conference is planned in February, 1967 with the University of Illinois Social Science Curriculum Study Center directed by Ella Leppert and Roland Payette.

Summary

The problem of the dissemination and implementation of new social studies curricula can be attacked on two different levels. A new institutional mechanism, the field station, provides for a systematic attack of the problem. Within the field station, decision-makers can analyze alternative curricula, make any necessary modifications in materials and strategies, field-test a selected curriculum in the schools of the metropolitan St. Louis area, and begin the complex process of systematic diffusion of materials and practices which hold promise for improving the quality of instruction in the social studies. For those school systems who, for whatever reason, are unable to engage in the field station process, the leadership and resources of the Metropolitan St. Louis Social Studies Center will permit school systems to work for reform in a more limited fashion. In addition, the Curriculum Analysis Seminars conducted periodically are intended to engage teachers and curriculum development specialists in a dialogue over the significant issues in the teaching of the social studies in the schools.

The problem of changing long established practice is difficult and these plans, while they by no means solve all problems, do move in the direction of providing the institutional mechanism for maximum cooperation among school systems, universities, and curriculum development centers. The plan is not utopian; rather it attempts to provide a means of doing the best job of educating youth with the human resources which are available.

CHAPTER III

ANALYSIS OF NEED AND ARGUMENT FOR A NEW ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

Introduction

In this chapter, we argue that there is a need for an elementary school social studies program with a new focus. Our argument rests on two contentions. First, democratic society is characterized by a belief that common man should exercise a high degree of control over political decisions. Second, that contemporary society presently is undergoing massive economic, social and technological changes which are leading to far-reaching changes in our political processes and institutions. The increasing complexity of decision-making in the contemporary world requires a highly educated, sophisticated and concerned citizenry. Yet, what we find is widespread complacency and cynicism in politics and ignorance of our political institutions.

There is an accumulation of recent evidence, which supports a claim made by many political thinkers over the years, that the early childhood years are central to the formation of intelligent, responsible, political men. The importance of these formative years places a serious burden on many agencies within the society, but particularly on the schools which have the formal charge to develop the intellectual faculties of all children so that they may become responsible adults.

At the foundation of a free society lies a paradox. On the one hand the basic ideal of democracy is what we can call "individual autonomy," which implies that members of the society may make choices according to their own standards without threat of coercion or punishment. It is not that they may do anything they please, rather, it is that they have an opportunity not available in other systems to find themselves, pursue their talents and tastes, and, within reason, to seek their own ideals (Frankel, 1962, p. 38). On the other hand, the stability of a free society (or any society) is dependent upon shared ideals, attitudes and knowledge. It is impossible to conceive of any society that does not have a measure of conformity or consensus. Within a democratic society too much or the wrong sort of consensus can destroy the diversity of belief and behavior that is the mark of a free society, yet some consensus is necessary. First, we will comment on the three areas where we contend there must be some consensus and present briefly the evidence that a serious problem exists in each of the three areas, then go on to present our case for the development of a new curriculum which confronts these problems.

The Need for Common Ideals. The stability and ultimately the survival of every society requires some agreement about general goals and ideals. Democratic societies have subscribed to such ideals as freedom, equality, and justice, and while these are vague terms, they represent values that have excited and held promise for men. When citizens hold such values as important for all men in spite of their other interests and loyalties, the chances that controversy will seriously disrupt society are lessened.

There are profound differences over the origin or source of these ideals; some writers hold to metaphysical explanations, others to "natural law", and others disapprove of such speculative discussions altogether. The labels used for these values in the writings of democratic theorists also vary. There is, however, surprising consensus on the substance of these values. The basic substantive values, whether expressed by Frankel (1962), Lindsay (1947), Hallowell (1954), or Dahl (1956), remain the same. Nevertheless there is confusion and misunderstanding among many educators and among citizens over these ideals. For instance, we find that loyalty and duty are given by some educators as the most fundamental values of the free society. Yet loyalty is contingent in a democratic state, and not a substantive goal of the system. This contingency is best expressed in the first paragraph of the Declaration of Independence. Widespread confusion also exists over the function of conflict in a democratic society. Most writers on democratic theory hold that political values in a pluralistic state are necessarily in constant conflict and that conflicts in policy are reflections of conflicts within the "democratic creed" itself. Yet many citizens, teachers, and much of the educational literature equate the democratic creed with cooperation and harmony, and lament the fact that societal conflict exists.

There is a need for common values and ideals in our society but what this means in a free society must be carefully understood if we are to avoid the danger of confusing societal ideals with personal or sub-group values.

Lane (1962) has contributed one of the few studies which attempts to examine the complexity of the problem of the nature and prevalence of the basic political values held by "common man." From a careful analysis of long and intensive interviews with fifteen men, Lane concludes that they have very limited concepts of freedom and equality. To these men, freedom meant primarily economic freedom, freedom to choose your job and to consume. "One could caricature this position by the expression, 'I don't care what I am allowed to say, so long as I can buy what I want, work where I want, and go where I want'". (Lane, 1962, p. 25). The political elements of freedom were not very important. Of equality and liberty, Lane asserts:

> Neither the commercial classes nor the working class has much affection for the ideals in their universal forms. On the other hand the professional classes very often do have such affection. It is they in the democratic West who serve as the 'hard core' of democratic defenders... It is not 'The People'...(to whom)... we must look for the consistent and relatively unqualified defense of freedom and equality.
> (Lane, 1962, p. 81)

Although twelve of the fifteen men did support the decision-making process of democracy, three (one-fifth of his sample) did not value political democracy or popular government. They expressed a scorn for a mass electorate, a distaste for the confusion and delay of parliamentary procedures, a preference for dictatorship in time of threat, unrelieved cynicism about democratic procedures, and doubt about the future of democracy. On the other hand, Myrdal (1944) argues that Americans almost universally do subscribe to "the American Creed". Myrdal's position does not necessarily contradict Lane, since Myrdal suggests also that there is widespread confusion over values and argues that when Americans take a position on an issue that denies one of the basic values, they tend to "repress" these values.

The Need for a Common Attitude towards Participation. The democratic system takes as one of its central values the right of all to participate effectively in government. But even if we grant that the ideal cannot be realized, we find there is a widespread political apathy. If large numbers of citizens do not desire to participate or feel their participation will be ineffective, then democracy as that term is generally understood cannot exist. The argument is summed up by Almond and Verba: "If a democratic political system is one in which the ordinary citizen participates in political decision, a democratic political culture should consist of a set of beliefs, attitudes, norms, that support participation." (Almond and Verba, 1963, p. 78). The argument is sometimes made that the United States government works well without very general participation. However, one standard of a free society remains the proportion of citizens who share in the decision-making process, even if this control is mediated through a governmental institution. In addition, people who express themselves politically in the United States are the ones who achieve individual and group gains. Lane (1959) develops this argument at some length: "The most plausible assumption is that if certain groups of classes of citizens do not vote, their interests will be neglected in the action and policies of government."

The number of adults who do not participate in the political process in any way is relatively large. The percentage of the potential electorate voting in national American elections oscillates around 60% (Lipset, 1959, p. 185), but only 11% of a national sample in 1950 worked in elections (Lane, 1959, p. 54), and less than 31% in 1950 belonged to even a quasi-political organization, (Lane, 1959, p. 75). Hess and Torney (p. 22) conclude after a review of available data that the proportion of adults who are politically active is usually between 20% and 30%. Lane (1959, p.93) develops a political participation continuum which describes the political acts as office-holding, electioneering, attending party meetings, petitioning public officials, belonging to quasi-political associations, and voting. He further argues that those who perform the less frequent political acts (voting and belonging to quasi-political associations) are almost certain to perform the more frequent acts. If Lane is correct, we can expect that considerably fewer than 31% (in 1954) performed any political activities besides voting and belonging to quasi-political organizations. Several other investigators who have measured political participation or political activity have concluded that participation is limited and that the vast majority of the American public are "spectators" rather than citizens.

A number of researchers have examined in detail the constellation of attitudes underlying political participation. A number of related but distinct concepts have been isolated: political involvement or interest, political efficacy (feeling or potency in effecting political or social change), political alienation (low efficacy plus distrust of those who have political power) and political cynicism. These concepts have been defined and studies of their prevalence reported by Hess and Torney (1965, pp. 13-23).

Studies of these attitudes generally demonstrate that political alienation and political cynicism are prevalent in the adult population. For example, Agger, Goldstein and Pearl (1961) report 18% of their sample were "politically cynical" and 31% "politically neutral."

The Need for Political Intelligence. In addition to possessing an understanding of democratic ideals and a willingness to participate in the polity, the citizen must know enough to be effective. We call the latter "political intelligence" and separate it into two types. First, the citizen must have enough information, data and conceptual knowledge about the social, political, and economic world that confronts him. The political impotence that can result from ignorance of basic political and economic facts of life is too obvious to be labored. Political knowledge, however, cannot be defined only in terms of descriptions of formal institutional structures but must include knowledge of complexities of social and political processes. Second, the citizen must have the analytical skill to clarify social and political disputes, so that he can arrive at justifiable positions he would urge on the authoritative decision-makers. The intellectual abilities of men vary and some men will obviously be able to analyze political issues more successfully than others. However, the democratic system rests on the faith that the common man is capable of arriving at sound political judgments on the basis of rational analysis. One of the major arguments for public or common schools is that all men if given proper education can make a rational analysis of social and political controversy.

There are few studies that assess the public's understanding of how the political system operates and the relationships between political, social, and economic institutions and processes. The informational questions usually asked by public opinion pollsters are factual and on the level of, "Who are your senators?" Predictably, less than half can answer such questions. Several studies indicate that adults have not even the simplest knowledge of governmental organization and process. For example, only 55% know how many senators there are from each state (Erskine, 1963), only 35% know what the Electoral College is (*Ibid*), 28% do not know how the members of the Board of Education get their jobs (Janowitz, 1958), 31% (in 1958) had heard absolutely nothing about the State of the Union Message (Erskine, 1963). There are no studies specifically directed at determining the common man's ability to analyze political and social issues. However, we can infer from some of the previous data that citizens who are politically unconcerned and who lack basic political information will not likely have the analytical skills to deal with political disputes.

Factors in Modern Industrial Society are Intensifying Problems.

A rapidly changing, increasingly urban and industrial society in America makes the ideal of civic competence increasingly difficult to achieve. Many current interpretations of modern society point to the many impediments to a democratic government in modern society. Frankel comments:

> The movement has many names-'collectivism,' 'Americanization,' 'mass-society'-depending upon who talks about it and where he lives. But the conviction is clearly widespread that this movement is taking place, that it is irreversible, and that it is turning words like 'freedom' and 'democracy' into sour ironies. (p. 3)

Several critics stress the decline in personal values which accompanies urbanization. "In the urban setting the primary group structure of society is in a process of rapid dissolution. Kinship groups, neighborhood groups, the church, the local community are losing their importance." (Greer, 1963, p. 328) "Values previously associated with declining social structure themselves decline or come into conflict with new values." (Greer, p. 335) In addition, Selznik (p. 25) sees an increasing reliance upon force to resolve social conflict with the break-down of social restraint.

Several analysts describe how metropolitan life increases the feelings of political powerlessness or alienation which are, as we have argued, dysfunctional to democratic society. Mills, (1963, pp. 397-398) describes how citizens, becoming increasingly aware of the very real difficulty of influencing the political bureaucracy, are forced to become spectators rather than actors in the political system. Fromm (1955) argues that in modern industrial society authority becomes increasingly invisible and unassailable and that society has failed to provide any institutional opportunities for immediate political responsibility.

The exercise of general critical judgment which is, as we have argued, crucial to the maintainance of a free society, is dependent upon a great deal of specialized knowledge. The increasing specialization of information increases the feeling of powerlessness of citizens called upon to make informed decisions. Further, a number of critics have questioned whether, as the mass media become more prominent and pervasive and the control of public information becomes increasingly concentrated in the hands of a few individuals and groups, free access to public information can be maintained at all. And, finally, as Berle (1957), Frankel and others have argued at length, as the power of large corporate entities continues to grow unchecked, it is increasingly difficult for individuals to exercise control over political decisions. This argument is well stated by Frankel:

> Adolf Berle has talked of the development of modern capitalism into a system of 'power without property'-a system in which a relatively small group of men, the officers of the large pension funds, insurance companies, and mutual investment corporations, have the power, along with government, to determine the shape of the American economy and the way in which its resources will be allocated. But this system of 'power without property' is part of a much larger trend in which some men hold power as trustees and representatives of other men though other men hold little control over them. The involuntary character of many associations officially called voluntary, the weakening or disappearance of democratic processes within them, and the rise of shadow associations whose power is very great have all challenged the assumptions on which the image of the voluntary association--and behind it, the ideal of government by consent--has rested. (p. 60)

While some writers are more optimistic than others over the prospects for democracy, there is some consensus that social and sociological changes are having a profound effect on the average citizen's ability and desire to participate in the political process.

The Problems of Political Involvement of the Lower Classes.

Although the problems related to political and social values, political participation, and political intelligence can be found in virtually all social status groups, there is evidence that these problems are especially intense in the lower classes. The amount of political participation of all kinds from voting in federal and local elections to participation in local quasi-political organizations is correlated positively with social class (Lane, 1959, p. 93). Nearly half of the eligible voters in the lower class fail even to vote. (Lane, 1959, p. 79)

The lower classes, however indexed, are the most alienated from government. "Political alienation clearly would be expected to be associated with objectively determined relative powerlessness in the community and, given the interrelationships between class, status, and power structures in American society, it follows that political alienation would be expected to be associated with lower SES however indexed." (Thompson and Horton, 1960, p. 190; Kornhauser, 1956).

In addition, it is not surprising to find that people of higher status are more likely to feel politically effective, for they are more effective in their private lives. As one descends the social scale to the "other America," one meets increasing numbers of people who have not been effective in any sphere of their lives.

Summarizing a number of empirical studies, Hyman concludes, "In work on adults it has been established that the less educated and lower classes are more intolerant in the civil liberties area, and more prejudiced with respect to the treatment of minorities." (1959, p. 43). Key (1961, p. 150) comes to a similar conclusion.

The Early Years are Crucial in Political Education.

There is very strong evidence that the crucial period for political education or political socialization is the period of early childhood. Such evidence is not surprising since it is consonant with evidence about the importance of early socialization in other areas. Recent research on political socialization in the United States indicates that many of the basic political values are already formed by the junior high school years and are highly resistant to change. In a recent issue of the Annals of the

American Academy of Political and Social Sciences devoted entirely to political socialization, there was complete agreement among the contributors based upon empirical evidence that the early years are crucial[1] in the development of basic values and attitudes.

The Failures of the School in Political Education.

The schools add to the child's confusion over democratic ideals and principles and fail to provide requisite knowledge for intelligent participation in the political world.

The Handling of Democratic Values and Ideals in the Schools. The general goal of teaching "democratic values" is proclaimed by nearly all curriculum guides. However, the formulation of values by most guides and the interpretation of these values by most teachers totally ignore the basic paradox which arises when values are taught by the public school in a free society. The curriculum guides and teachers who use them rarely recognize the distinction between those general ideals and values which are essential to the democratic society and personal values or specific interpretations held by individuals or groups.

Almond and Verba (p. 161) make the distinction between the subject and the citizen, the latter being an active participant in the political-input process while the output of the process is the sole concern of the subject. Most of the value teaching in the public school stresses values which are appropriate only for the subject orientation. For example, there is presently a concern by educators to teach students to be cooperative, with the tacit assumption that cooperation is the basic element of the democratic character. Students are to learn to value such behaviors as "respecting constituted authority" or "adjusting interest to the best interest of the group." (Quillen and Hanna, 1961, pp. 55-56) Teaching these values as truths in the schools is appropriate for the individual's role as "subject" rather than as citizen. Hess and Torney also describe another set of values generally taught in the elementary school which focuses primarily on the "subject" role of the individual.

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[1] Easton and Dennis (1965) take the position that a positive attitude toward government which is present in early years has a lasting effect. (pp. 52-55). Hess and Torney (1965) state, "The most striking feature of political socialization in the elementary school is the extent to which basic orientations have been acquired by children by the end of the 8th grade (p. 380). Easton and Hess (1962) state that the elementary child "is perhaps as ready for both formal and informal learning about citizenship as he will ever be...formal programs of citizenship training and education might more effectively be placed at the pre-high school level." (p. 264)

Greenstein's initial research findings lead him to conclude, "Political orientations learned during the initial school years or the late pre-school years often have a greater impact on the individual's adult political behavior than do orientations which are learned later in life... Adult orientations which have their roots in early learning...(those adopted without conscious consideration of alternatives)...are likely to have an unquestioned character which makes them both influential for behavior and resistant to change." (1965, p. 7)

> The importance of compliance to rules and authorities is a major focus of civic education in elementary school. Teachers' ratings of the importance of various topics clearly indicate that the strongest emphasis is placed upon compliance to law, authority and school regulations. Indeed, it seems likely that much of what is called citizenship training in the public schools does not teach the child about city, state, or national government, but is an attempt to teach regard for the rules and standards of conduct of the school. If it does indeed characterize the school, this type of socialization is oriented toward authoritarian values rather than toward acceptance and understanding of the need for active participation in a political system. (Hess and Torney, p. 377)

It should be added that much of this "compliance" training is not part of the intentional curriculum but built into the social system of the school. The impact of the social system is continuous and we would guess that the impact of the social system is far more substantial on the child's view of governmental authority and justice than the odd bits of political information the teacher includes in his lessons. Probably some of the most effective teaching of political ideals is unintentional. Teachers may be unaware that their celebrations of such folk heroes as Washington and Lincoln are perhaps the most important part of political education and play an essential role in the culture. Since this value teaching is not a conscious but a largely haphazard process, it is not difficult to understand why certain cultural ideals are usually endorsed, others ignored, and why there are so many oversimplifications and misunderstandings in the political value patterns of Americans. When a large part of the political value teaching in the public school is done inadvertantly, when the teacher does not consider the extreme danger to a free society of the public school prescribing individual or sub-group values, when the values teaching is often dysfunctional to the requirements of effective citizenship, then it is clear that the public school is not fulfilling an important educational function.

Teaching of Political Intelligence in the Schools. Much of the intentional teaching of political knowledge is compressed into the ninth grade "Civics" and the eleventh or twelfth grade "Problems of Democracy" courses. We could locate no studies that specifically attempted to assess the impact of these courses on students; however, the textbooks used in these courses are revealing. In the former course, the texts consist largely of descriptions of formal governmental structures and discussions of an idealized "community" life. The latter texts contain bland discussions of social problems that neither take a position nor provide sufficient factual knowledge, argument and counter-argument for the uninformed to form opinions. Of the handling of political concepts in the elementary school, Hess and Torney conclude, "there has been relatively little attempt to determine which concepts are basic to the operation of the democratic system and to teach these at an early age in an effective manner." (p. 79) In the St. Louis Public Schools Curriculum guide, for example, under the topic "Introduction to the United States of America" in the fifth grade, the concepts are almost entirely geographical and historical. Nowhere does the guide include a specifically political concept. (pp. 23-31)

Much of the "data" presented by curriculum guides and texts are generalizations of questionable validity. The descriptions of political and social reality usually ignore unpleasant factors. Where there is some treatment of the political system, it often fails to take into account the important informal means of political influence. Omission of mention of the role of political parties and partisanship and legitimate means of informal influence is perhaps the most widespread.

The New Curriculum Projects do not Face the Problem.

Of the half dozen new elementary social studies curriculum projects, not one is primarily concerned with preparing students to be political persons in a free society. Some of these curricula are oriented toward a specific discipline; others include concepts from all the social sciences, including in some instances, methods of social science research. For example, the curriculum development at the Curriculum Center in the Social Studies of Syracuse University (Roy Price, Director) is an attempt to develop awareness of both the methods of social science research, (for example, objectivity, skepticism, relativism, respect for other evidence) and the major concepts from the social sciences and allied disciplines. Their recent publication includes "conflict" as a major focus, including political conflict; however, no materials are yet available. The

University of Minnesota Project Social Studies Curriculum (Edith West, Director) is concerned with key concepts drawn from the various social science disciplines. How much focus there will be on the political is unknown since this project has made none of its plans known. The curriculum being developed at the Industrial Relations Center, University of Chicago, is primarily economics. The objective of this program is to develop in the students an understanding of two basic economic processes, consumption and production, and the relationships between them. Concepts from other social sciences are used to develop a thorough understanding of economic ideas. The Anthropology Curriculum Project, (University of Georgia, M. C. Bailey, Director) proposes to provide systematic subject content in anthropology through a "progressive development centered on mastery of the fundamental concepts of anthropology and their applications." This curriculum is to be used in conjunction with existing social studies programs. The Northwestern Project, "New Approaches to and Materials for a Sequential Curriculum on American Society for Grades 5-12" focuses upon the teaching of "basic ideas and concepts concerning American Society" in those grades where American Society is generally taught (fifth grade in elementary school) in order to eliminate needless and undesirable duplication. This curriculum deals with social science findings in the disciplines of geography, history, political science, and economics. However, this curriculum does not present a cumulative systematic attack on the problem. The Contra Costa County Social Studies Curriculum (Hilda Taba, Consultant) is concerned with teaching thinking and main ideas and generalizations from the six social sciences. Senesh's "organic curriculum," which seeks to teach students problem solving, uses economics as the basic discipline. The intent is to integrate elements from other social science disciplines including political science. From our analysis the focus of the curriculum is largely on descriptive concepts and at present we see little concern with politics and political controversy.

A number of curriculum development projects have been concerned with political education. The Lincoln Filene Civic Education Project has produced a number of interesting pamphlets and supplementary materials for political education at the high school level. The junior high school curriculum now being prepared by Educational Services, Incorporated is largely history oriented with some focus on political problems promised for the ninth grade. The Carnegie Institute of Technology curriculum (Carnegie Project Social Studies) also contains a number of interesting texts and case materials related to political science, but they are designed for the secondary school. The D. W. Oliver curriculum (Harvard Project Social Studies) deals directly with political controversy based on law and social science, but again directed at the secondary school. Our views and analysis correspond with those of Oliver; however, we argue that to reserve such education for the secondary school is a serious mistake. The available evidence indicates that the elementary school years are the most critical in the formation of political men. Our analysis of recent curriculum work, though we find much of it to be of great merit, indicates that it does not deal specifically with the range of problems we have identified in this chapter.

The Public Elementary School in a Democratic Society must Educate Politically.

We have argued that political education in a free society, as in all societies, is necessary in order for citizens to learn those common values, attitudes, and intelligence, and to develop the intellectual competencies necessary for political participation. In our view, it is proper for the public school to prepare citizens for effective citizenship by the effective teaching of these elements. As we have shown, adults in the United States fall short of the ideal of effective citizenship in several dimensions and adults are confused about the basic values of a free society, many fail to participate, many feel "alienated" from government, and the political intelligence of many is limited. Thus, in spite of the importance of educating citizens for effective citizenship, the public schools fulfill their role poorly, unsystematically, and without understanding of the complexities of the task. What we believe is needed is a curriculum which takes into consideration the complexity of the problem of effective citizenship education and provides elementary students with the preparation they require.

After an extensive investigation of political socialization in our society, Hess and Torney recommend:

> Perhaps what is needed is a task force which will combine the efforts of several disciplines, especially political science, psychology, education, and philosophy in revising the curriculum in ways comparable to the new advances in the teaching of mathematics and the sciences. Such an effort would examine the conceptual bases of civic education and teaching, then order them in a sequence that would lead the child to an emerging sense of how the system should operate, the principles on which it depends, and his own effectiveness and the role within it. (p. 379)

Summary

In modern society the public schools remain an important agency responsible for the political education of the young.[1] We have attempted to show that citizenship education in the school is inadequate. The public school, as the first impersonal collective group the child enters "is apparently the most powerful institution in the socialization of attitudes, conceptions and beliefs about the operation of the political system." (Hess and Torney, p. 377) As such, it must play a far more effective role in the formation of political men who will preserve the most ingenious and potentially the most humanitarian of social inventions, the democratic state. In the next chapter, we outline our proposal for a new elementary school social science curriculum which attempts to take into account the issues we have raised.

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[1] Friedrich (1963,pp. 617-620) discusses the point at length.

CHAPTER IV

A PROPOSAL FOR AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SOCIAL SCIENCE CURRICULUM

Introduction

The chapter outlines a proposal for an elementary school curriculum which addresses itself to the problems and issues raised in Chapter III. It should be noted that the authors have chosen not to label the proposed curriculum "citizenship education" largely because the term has an extremely narrow meaning in common parlance. The label could be used, however, if it is conceived as referring broadly to that education which makes it more likely that students will possess the knowledge, intellectual skills and commitment which will serve them as responsible individuals in a free society.

A more careful statement of the general goals of the curriculum is as follows: (1) to provide students with an understanding of the impact of the ideological, economic and technological forces which continually modify the interrelationship of self, group, organizations, and institutions; (2) to provide students with an understanding of social science concepts which will help them to order and clarify their social world; (3) to provide students with an understanding of the political and economic systems; (4) to provide students with the analytical skills that will enable them to deal with conflict in the public world; (5) to help students appreciate the unique contribution of the Western political democratic tradition; and, (6) to have students recognize that the unique pluralistic character of a free society creates a set of perennial ethical dilemmas which citizens must confront.

Criteria for Selection of Content and Teaching Strategy.

Curriculum building requires a great many decisions about what to teach and how to teach it. This section makes explicit five "models" which serve to guide the choice of instructional materials, strategies, and scope and sequence which are intended to achieve the goals of the curriculum. It should be noted that these are curriculum decision-making models; they are not taught to the students directly. Also, each model is not independent; rather, they all can be subsumed under Model A. The interrelationship of the models perhaps will become clearer to the reader after he becomes familiar with our proposal for grade sequence and the outline of a sample "unit" intended for grade four.

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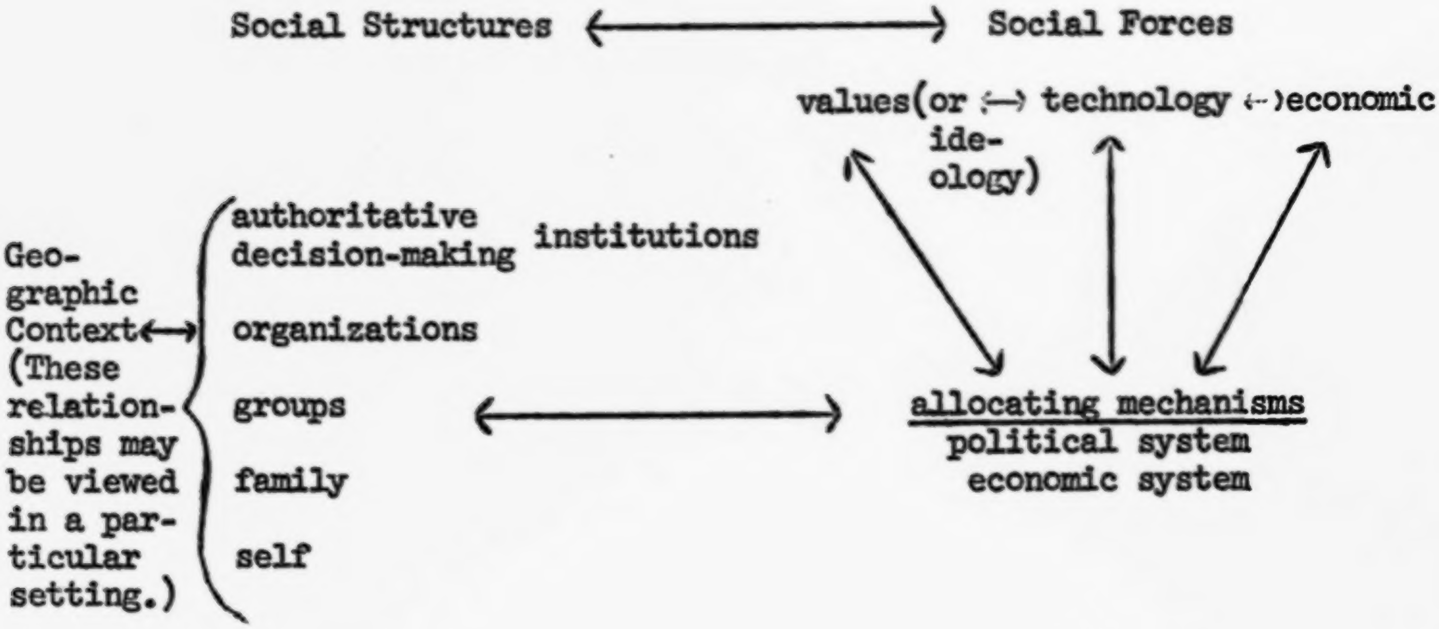
The models are as follows:

Model A: (Figure IV-1) Interaction of social forces on social structures.

Figure IV-1.


Social Structures
Social Forces
values (or ideology)
technology
economic
authoritative decision-making institutions
organizations
groups
family
self
Geographic Context (These relationships may be viewed in a particular setting.)
allocating mechanisms
political system
economic system

Explanation of the diagram

Social Structures. Societies are composed of individuals and collections of individuals, loosely or formally organized. At any given moment in time in a given society, the relationships among self, family, groups, organizations, and authoritative structures may be precisely described and compared to other times and places. For instance, the relationship of self to group and to authoritative decision-making institution is different in a medieval European town and in a nineteenth century American town, yet both may be described and compared.

Social Forces. There are always dynamic forces operating in a society which lead to changes. These may be rapid or virtually imperceptible. The changes in values, technology, and economics interact and lead to changes in the relationships within the social structures. For instance, economic change in the nineteenth to twentieth centuries in America altered the relationship of self to family; self to organization (e.g., corporations, unions, church); organization to authoritative decision-making institutions.

Allocating Mechanisms. A society develops mechanisms for the allocation of resources and rewards in a society, and for insuring stability. The political and economic systems are the major allocating mechanisms. A free society, for instance, develops a particular set of political institutions in order to make it more likely that there will be an equitable or "fair" distribution of rewards in a society. What we call "due process of law" is a set of constraints placed on the way authoritative institutions must go about defining and punishing deviant individuals, groups, or organizations. The character of the social forces at a given time may modify the social structures directly (e.g., the invention of the steam engine led to change, over time, in the social class structure), but the social forces also shape the political and economic systems or their policies which, in turn, affect the social structures.

Geographical Context or Setting. The interaction of social forces, political and economic systems, and social structures takes place in given places and times or settings. For instance, we may study and understand these interactions in the context of a twentieth century Mexican village, in third century B.C. Athens, or in a contemporary tribal society. But the distinctive features within a given setting (or the "geographical factors") include its interaction with the social structures, political and economic systems which are, in turn, modifying and being modified by social forces. The setting also affects the way the society responds to technological change. The curriculum is composed of a broad array of contexts, some historical, some cross-cultural, and some contemporary.

This model of the dynamics of social change is simple, but useful for the purposes of curriculum decisions. It describes the interaction between social forces, social structure, and political and economic institutions in a particular geographical setting. This aids us in the solution of three problems: (1) the choice of social science concepts and generalizations to be taught; (2) the relationship between social change and ethical dilemmas; and (3) how to identify the political and economic processes to be taught.

> (1) Social Science Concepts and Generalizations. The model suggests criteria for the universe of social science concepts necessary for understanding a social system. These include geographical, sociological, political, and economic concepts.
>
> (2) Social Change and Ethical Dilemmas. Conflicts occur within a free society as it attempts to cope with social change and frequently the conflicts are over the meaning and interpretation of social values as they apply to concrete policy issues. These ethical dilemmas in a free society are more frequent and intense, in part, because of the multi-value values of the free society. When social changes are rapid, dilemmas become more complex and their resolution more urgent. As indicated in the model, changes in values, technology, and economics will have repercussions in a society's political and economic systems, and a given social and economic system will determine how the economic goods, status, and rewards of a given society are allocated. These changes will, in turn, affect a society's system of social relationships, either directly, or indirectly, through the political and economic mechanisms. The curriculum will focus on ethical dilemmas

that are generated as a consequence of these changes.

(3) Political and Economic Institutions and Processes. If the curriculum is to provide students with the ability to deal with public issues, it is essential that the students learn how conflicts are handled and resolved within the arena of public policy. In a free society, the child, as he enters the public world, should be taught to clarify the controversies that occur within the economic and political systems, since it is within this area that societal conflicts are resolved.

The model outlines three areas in which public decision-making occurs--the political system, the economic system and, to a lesser extent, within social groups. We have developed a model of the decision-making process in the political and economic system In the early grades, the students will be introduced to conflicts that involve lower-level authoritative decision-makers (e.g., the teacher, local court, the policeman) and in the later grades, they will become acquainted with progressively higher levels of authoritative decision-makers (e.g., the Supreme Court, county government, the President's cabinet, federal and state agencies).

Model B: Ethical dilemmas of man in a free society.

Men living in a free society are confronted by continual disagreements over a number of basic ethical issues that are never resolved in any final sense. These ethical dilemmas manifest themselves at particular points in history in specific political and social disputes; e.g., shall there be Medicare, should the Courts use wire-tap evidence, should there be progressive taxation, etc? The specific disputes may be resolved by legislation or Court decision but the underlying ethical issues remain to reappear in another context. We have identified several besic ethical issues of man in a free society which will serve in the construction of this curriculum. Although we do not consider our statement of these dilemmas final, or the set exhaustive, we are convinced that they serve to conceptualize most, if not all, political-ethical disagreement. We contend further that these dilemmas are enduring. They do not become outdated by technology or social change. While the manifestations may become more difficult to fathom because of the increasing complexity of our society, the basic ethical issues remain and citizens in a free society must learn to deal with them. We do not propose that the dilemmas themselves be the subject of study, but that they provide one major focus of each of the "units." Thus, children will be faced with each dilemma several times in a number of historical and cross-cultural contexts over the six year sequence. The dilemmas are as follows:

Equal access vs. privilege: The dilemma of equal access and privilege lies at the base of many disputes over the distribution of social, political, and economic rewards in the society. Equal access implies that every person have a reasonable opportunity to compete for what the society offers--prestige, position, power, security, wealth. Privilege implies that there are some legitimate grounds for differential allocation of rewards in the society based on such criteria as hard work, education, intelligence, and leadership ability. The controversy over what criteria are legitimate is, of course, the heart of the dilemma. Most high status groups would probably argue that there is a legitimate basis for their privilege.

Social concern vs. individualism: This classic dilemma poses the question of what is man's responsibility to his fellow man against the proposition that man has a right to keep to himself and disregard the pain of others. This dilemma is mainfest commonly at the local level. Recently the "poverty program" and Medicare have raised questions over this dilemma at a national level.

Change vs. stability: Changes in the social, economic, political system, or even minor changes in environment can upset the predictability in people's lives. All men require some degree of stability and order if they are to survive, yet men also yearn for changes that will bring greater wealth, security, a measure of justice, or freedom from hunger. What then is a legitimate disruption of the social order? For instance, are the injustices of a segregated society sufficiently severe to warrant the distress that change will mean for a great many people? Or were the purported advantages of "civilization" worth the cost to the Indian in the erosion of what was a stable social order? Or is the wealth produced by automation worth the personal tragedy which results from technological unemployment?

Conformity vs. freedom: In a free society there must be some areas of thought and behavior where there is consensus. At the same time there should be maximum freedom of choice. What should be the limits of consensus and free choice has been a critical issue a number of times in United States history. The Alien and Sedition Acts and the Smith Act represent attempts of government to define deviant behavior. However, the press for conformity probably has always been more pervasive at the local level where unusual belief and behavior are more likely to be considered deviant by persons and groups.

Freedom vs. privatism: To what extent and under what conditions should the rights of citizens and groups to pursue their interests be curbed because of the rights of others to be left in privacy. The unparalleled power over individuals that rests in the hands of large corporate entities has given this issue a special urgency.

Autonomy vs. general welfare: Providing for the general welfare of the larger group conflicts with the desire of the individual or sub-groups to preserve their own freedom. This conflict takes many forms; for instance, if an American Indian tribe is living on land which is extremely rich in oil but is unexploited, should the tribe be forced to exploit the oil on their land if they are unable or unwilling to do so? Should slum property be condemned to build an industrial complex? Should an African tribe be forced by its national government to use modern rather than traditional methods of farming? In a pluralistic society which guarantees the rights of individuals and sub-groups to pursue their own interests, this conflict is particularly crucial.

Control of conflict: Conflict in the society may be handled through rational discourse, various forms of persuasion, or outright physical coercion. The problem of defining legitimate means of handling conflict is a persistent problem at local, national, and international levels, e.g., local labor disputes that degenerate into violence, a state's refusal to recognize a federal court order which may be enforced by federal troops, or the sending of an international police force to settle national boundary disputes. Today, the most complex and potentially dangerous problem of the control of conflict exists at the international level.

Model C: Substantive and procedural values of the Western liberal-democratic tradition.

We have argued in our discussion of the problem that Western democratic society must be characterized by a commitment to a set of ideals. Although democratic theorists hold that a high degree of consensus exists, there is widespread confusion and misunderstanding over these values. In addition to these ideals, Western democracy has developed a set of procedural principles that have established the basis for constitutional democracy. Here we will summarize briefly a schema of ideals and procedural principles. An elaboration of the schema may be found in Oliver and Shaver (1963), or in Berlak (1963).

The central value, the fundamental article of faith of a free society, is dignity of the individual. The phrase is ambiguous but not meaningless. Then, there are a set of somewhat more precise legal-ethical values that help define in rough terms the conditions that must prevail to realize dignity of the individual. These subsidiary commitments themselves are quite ambiguous and contradictory. However, there is widespread consensus over the desirability of these substantive values, at least in abstract terms. These values are:

Liberty which implies that men should be free to make choices without the harassment of other citizens, groups or governments.

Peace and order which implies that a sufficient degree of tranquility should prevail so men need not live in fear and may expect some stability and continuity in the environment.

General welfare which implies some minimal provision (not necessarily by government) for decent education, medical care, food, employment and other societal necessities.

Equality which implies on one hand equal and fair treatment, and on the other, equal opportunity to develop as a worthy, self-respecting individual.

Brotherhood which implies some responsibility of man to the development of the integrity of his fellow man. We call these legal-ethical values because each has a body of constitutional, common, and statute law, both state and federal, associated with them.

Constitutional democracy is based on the foregoing political-ethical values. There has also developed, over time, what we may call *procedural principles* of American government. The principles may be looked upon as attempts to formulate institutional guarantees for the set of substantive values. Some, as federalism and separation of power, are merely devices for fragmenting power and their importance to the maintenance of the more basic values is often questioned. Others are generally considered to be central guarantees. In this third level are included such principles as: majority rule, rule of law, equal protection under the law, consent of the governed, due process, separation of power, and federalism. The values and principles represent complex ideas; a sizeable body of law, and in some cases, elaborate institutional arrangements, have evolved from each.

To summarize, there are three levels to the legal-ethical schema: first, respect for dignity of the individual; second, five substantive values that imply some conditions for the maintenance and pursuit of dignity; third, several procedural principles that suggest institutional arrangements for the maintenance of level two values, and in turn human dignity.

There is another value commitment of free society that is tied to the others but cannot be classed with them. It is *rationality*, and it may be approximately defined as the conviction that reasonable men can, through open discussion, arrive at mutually acceptable decisions. Rationality can be looked upon as a mediating value between level one and among level two and three values and principles. It is through some form of rational discourse, which is more compatible with human dignity than psychological seduction or coercion, that conflict among values may to some extent be resolved.

The values and principles may be thought of as ethical absolutes (equality, freedom) or as dimensional constructs (equal-unequal, free-coercive). If social values are considered as absolutes, behavior is judged on an all-or-nothing basis. We take the position that these values and principles should be thought of as dimensional constructs. In any political dispute it becomes a matter of attempting to determine at what point one would tolerate violations of one value when it conflicts with another value.

The children will learn progressively widened concepts of these values and principles. They will develop respect for each although care will be taken not to establish any hierarchy or priority among them. The legal-ethical framework may be regarded as a means of conceptualizing the dilemmas (Model B.) in terms of constitutionally sanctioned democratic ideals and principles. The ideals and principles in the framework will be used by the students to help them conceptualize political-social conflict.

Model D: Political and Economic Systems.

The models for political and economic systems were still under discussion at the writing of this report. The political system model may be based on the scheme suggested by David Easton (1953) or William C. Mitchell (1962). However, we find neither of these models wholly adequate for our purposes. The model for economic systems could perhaps be based on thsoe suggested by Meno Lovenstein (1963), Lawrence Senesh (1960), or Suzanne Wiggins and John Sperling (1964). At the present time we lean toward the model suggested by Lovenstein.

Model E: The Analytical Thought-Process Model.

A major goal of the curriculum is to provide children with the intellectual skill needed to handle the basic ethical dilemmas as they are manifest in specific political disputes. It is common to call such goals "critical thinking skills" and to list a number of "general steps" that will help the child solve all his problems. Berlak (1965) has argued against this conception of thinking and suggests that for the present, schools abandon this general conception. Thought process skills as we view them provide the student with a language and a set of strategies for asking questions and clarifying issues which will lead to formulation of public policy. This definition subsumes a set of skills which will assist the child in viewing the world in systematic, empirical terms. The analytical thought-process model to be used in this project is similar to that developed in the Harvard Social Studies Project and reported in Oliver and Shaver (1963) and Berlak (1963). Following is a brief summary of that model.

Three types of disagreements may be analytically distinguished in political controversies. The three types rarely, if ever, are completely separated in a discussion, but are enmeshed in the context of the controversy. However, they can be identified in argument and it is possible to distinguish the "problem solving" strategies that are suitable for handling each type.

> Definitional problems: Political controversy often involves misunderstanding in the use of terms. Resort to conventional usage often does not suffice because of the lack of precision or because conventional meanings are sometimes conflicting. Obviously, the first step in dealing with such disputes is recognizing that there is a difference in the use of key terms. Once the dispute is recognized, meaning may be stipulated, or the actors in the dispute can attempt to lay out definite criteria. If agreement on criteria can be reached, it can then be determined whether the disputed referent fulfills the requirements of the definition. Thus, the dispute becomes an empirical question.
>
> Value problems: The act of valuing involves classifying objects as "good" or "bad," "right" or "wrong." The values that we are concerned with are political and social values such as liberty, equality, general welfare, peace and order, and brotherhood. These social values generally imply some imperative or decision to act. For example, the value of liberty implies that we should not legislate restraints on free speech. In cases of political dispute, two or more values and decisions are usually in opposition. There are, broadly speaking, two strategies for handling the conflicts. In the first strategy, predicted consequences of the policy decision may be specified and these consequences may be handled as empirical questions. For example, a free speech dispute may involve conflict of liberty and order. If one of the protagonists asserts that freedom of speech must be curtailed (decision) or the young will be corrupted (predicted consequence), after some definitional clarification this prediction may be subject to verification with historical or social science evidence. The second strategy comes into play when the first strategy fails, that is, when definitional clarification and verification of empirical propositions does not suffice. If, for instance, it were possible to show that corruption of the young (as defined) did follow from absolute freedom of speech, the retort could be that no amount of corruption of the young is sufficient reason for curtailing free speech. At this point the strategy for dealing with the dispute must shift. The disputants may consider a whole range of analogies, hypothetical or real, which help define their position in order to arrive at a general qualification statement; e.g., we would curtail free speech under such and such circumstances. If the qualifications are to some degree coextensive, a

policy may be agreed on. This clarification process which involves considering a whole range of situations along the continuum of free speech and order may cause one or both of the actors to modify their positions. These two strategies and the instance cited do not, of course, cover the permutations possible in value conflict situations.

Factual problems: From the brief consideration of definitional and value problems, it is evident that evidence-gathering plays a critical role in resolving disputes. While empirical methods will not wholly resolve many ethical disputes, we have indicated that they play a role in testing predicted consequences, and in clarifying the elements of the analogies. We do not wish to underestimate the difficulties in dealing with empirical issues. The problem of validating propositions in political, social, and economic affairs are formidable. Yet once there is some agreement that clarification of an empirical issue will help resolve the policy difference, there is greater probability that agreement will ensue.

Argumentative tactics. In addition to the three classes of disagreement, we can identify argumentative tactics in disputes that can obscure issues. Use of emotive or "loaded" words, or such phrases as "everyone would agree that..." are two examples.

Patterns. We have indicated that in political controversies the factual, value, and definitional issues are intertwined and often obscured in a complex web of rhetoric. Arguments are seldom settled by distilling an empirical claim from context, resolving it, selecting another, and so on. The course of a discussion is far more intricate. Nevertheless, we have attempted to identify complex patterns of analysis that represent competent handling of controversy. The several major and minor patterns posited require too lengthy an elaboration, but the following list may be suggestive of what is meant by patterns of analysis.

1. Establishing a point at which a value is violated - the factual emphasis.
2. Establishing the point at which the value is violated - the value emphasis.[1]
3. Clarification of value conflict.
4. Translating a value conflict into an issue of fact.

In addition, a more specific set of patterns of operations is used within the foregoing patterns.

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[1] An instance of patterns 1 and 2 has been given in the discussion of value problems.

- a. Abstracting general values from concrete situations.
- b. Using general value concepts as dimensional constructs.
- c. Identifying conflicts between value constructs.
- d. Identifying a class of value conflict situations.
- e. Discovering or creating value conflict situations which are analogous to the problem under consideration.
- f. Working toward a general qualified position.
- g. Testing factual assumptions behind a position.
- h. Testing the relevance of statements.

Overview of Scope and Sequence.

When the child enters school, he becomes, for the first time, part of the task-oriented world. Yet the modern-day American child brings with him to school a matrix of ideas about himself his family, and other people and events. He learns at an early age that there is a world beyond his own environment; overheard conversations of adults, contact with other children, pictures, and the mass media provide him with a broad and often confusing array of experiences, impressions and images of the world. It is not uncommon for children to have travelled or moved in the course of their short lifetimes which may have given them additional images and impressions of the world. The knowledge children gain from these experiences, though fragmented and filled with fancy and fiction, is the basis of much of their later knowledge of people and of the larger world.

In an earlier day, without TV, radio, or printed pictures, in a world less mobile and less urban, a child's view of the world was more limited. This is not to say that today's child understands more of the world and is able to cope with it better than past generations. In fact, at an early age, so much has crossed his field of experience, in the form of fleeting impressions and images, that he may be unable to sort truth from fancy, the real from the imagined, the possible from the impossible, the probable from the improbable. The young child in some ways shares the problems of the modern-day adult; both live in a world where so many complex events occur simultaneously that it is difficult to have more than a fragmented view of them. The information that the child or adult gains from his own life experiences and from the mass media flashes before him, sometimes noticed, yet more often leaving only vague recollections and partially formed ideas. It is difficult enough to sort out and assimilate this information, let alone to arrange it in some usable or meaningful way.

The question that concerns us is how does the educator develop a social studies curriculum that takes into account the complexity of the stimulus-world of the child. The answer that educators have given for over a generation is to arrange the social studies curriculum in "ever-widening circles of experience" from family to neighborhood to city to state to nation to world. However, it is obvious that the child does not encounter the world in this fashion. The child "knows," or perhap more accurately, has been subjected to fragments of information, images, and value judgments about Russia, Viet Nam, the President, space travel, etc., long before he encounters such things as county or state government, urban renewal in his own backyard, or local courts. In our view, the attempt to arrange curriculum in ever-widening concentric circles fails the child. It ignores the range of social events to which he has been exposed and it over-simplifies and distorts the complexities of our world.

The scope and sequence of this proposed curriculum attempts to take into account the range of people, events, and ideas that intrudes on the child's world. We propose to acquaint the child with a matrix of ideas and concepts so that he is able to order the fragmented bits of information he has gathered about the world. In addition, the curriculum attempts to introduce the child, at an early age, to intellectual skills that permit him to comprehend the conflicts and controversies that are part of his own world. The child is party to controversy within family, neighborhood, and school. He overhears or views controversy on the local, national, and international scene through the mass media. Unless the child is provided with the intellectual skills and social science concepts to comprehend and to deal with these controversies, they will have no meaning for him.

Because of the complexity of the child's world and the world about him, a simple unitary principle for organizing content in a social studies curriculum will not suffice. In order to determine scope, sequence, and the internal structure of each grade, we employ a number of criteria simultaneously, that is, our model for the selection of criteria is multi-dimensional rather than unitary.

Specific Criteria for Sequence. From the models, we have derived more specific criteria for determining sequence.

a. Beginning with grade one and continuing through grade six, a change in focus from simple primary groups (the individual and the family) to more complex groups, organizations, and authoritative institutions.

b. Beginning with grade one and continuing through grade six, a movement from decisions viewed from the orientation of the personal-private world to decisions related to public policy issues.

c. Beginning with grade one and continuing through grade six, a movement from low-level, simple authoritative decision-makers to high-level, complex authoritative decision-makers.

d. Beginning in grade two, an increased understanding of the necessity for political institutions, functions of political institutions, and the constraints placed on the way conflicts are handled within a free society. These are reinforced and treated in a more elaborate and sophisticated way in grades three through six.

e. Beginning with grade three and continuing through grade six, an increased understanding of economic institutions, their functions and processes.

f. Beginning with grade three and continuing through grade six, a focus on societies in transition, with particular emphasis on urban societies caught up in the process of economic, technological, and value change. The ethical conflicts dealt with in the curriculum are generated by these changes.

The Themes and Contexts of Grades One Through Six.

Grade One.

Basic Theme: Transition of the child from the private world of home and family to the public world outside the home and in the school.

The school and outside-of-home environment are the arenas of transition to the public world for the child. In part, to become a person is to enter the social-political world. The school and outside-of-home environment have been selected as contexts because these are the areas where the child first becomes a participant in the social-political system of the outside world. The way the family handles conflict is used as a contrast to the way conflicts are handled in school and outside the home. The child is also introduced to the way transition to the public world occurs in other cultures and other times.

Social Science Disciplines: (in approximate order of emphasis)

sociology
political science
economics
anthropology
history
geography

Use of Specific Criteria:

1. The individual, family, and peer groups will be emphasized.

The school and the classroom will serve as examples of simple authoritative institutions.

2. The ethical dilemmas will be simple policy issues taken from the school and neighborhood and viewed from the perspective of the child or group. Personal dilemmas in the family will be used for purposes of contrast.

3. Low-level authoritative decision-makers (e.g., the teacher, the principal, the policeman) will be used to acquaint the child with the decision-making process.

4. The necessity for a political system, the functions of a political system, and the constraints placed on a political system in a free society will be dealt with only minimally.

5. Economic institutions, their functions and processes, will be dealt with only minimally.

6. Although societies in transition will not be emphasized, the theme of transition will be carried by the child himself. The child himself is undergoing the transition from the world of the family to that of the public world.

7. Intellectual and analytical skills are taught by engaging students in the dilemmas and by challenging students to verify and question the social science knowledge he is presented.

Tentative Contexts: The children will be confronted with a number of short ethical dilemmas in each unit. These units include:

1. The Child in School
2. The Child in the Neighborhood
3. The Child and School in Present-day Japan
4. The Child in Rural America
5. The Child in Colonial America
6. The Child in a Tribal Society

Grade Two

Basic Theme: The necessity for a political system in society and the general functions of any political system; the necessary exercise of power and the possibility of abuse of power; the necessity of constraints on the exercise of power in a free society.

In the first grade, the child learns that the world outside the home has a set of social rules and customs that differ from those within the family. In the second grade the child learns that there are necessary formal rule-making institutions called governments. The government, in the performance of its functions, must exercise power, and that power may be abused. Further, the child learns that governments in free societies represent a particular mode of government which sets up constraints on the exercise of power which include rule of law, consent of the governed, due process of law, equal protection of the law, and separation of power. Contexts will be focused on the school and outside-of-home, since both have an implicit political system.

Social Science Disciplines: (in approximate order of emphasis)

political science
sociology
economics
history

Use of Specific Criteria:

1. The individual, the family, and peer groups will be emphasized.

2. The ethical dilemmas will be simple personal and public policy dilemmas, each involving one particular part of the constraint system which is part of a free society's political system.

3. Low-level authoritative decision-makers will be used to reinforce the child's understanding of the decision-making process. These will include the teacher, the principal, the policeman. Other authoritative decision-making institutions and organizations will be used where the unit contexts permit.

4. An introduction to the necessity for a political system, the functions and processes of political institutions, and the constraints on a political system in a free society will be a major focus of this grade.

5. Economic institutions, their functions and processes, will be dealt with only minimally.

6. The theme of transition will continue to be provided by the child's transition from the world of the family to the public world.

7. See Grade One.

Tentative Contexts:

1. Why there are rules and governments. This unit will probably consist of several real and hypothetical "cases" bound by the theme of the need for government as an orderly mechanism for the control of violence. The contexts might

include:

a. a nineteenth century Western town
b. the school and school room
c. the laws of the seas
d. fictional episodes re-written for children (e.g., The Ox-Bow Incident)

2. The School as a Political System.

3-7. The Governing System in the World Outside the School. Each unit will deal with a dilemma which involves onr or more of the constraints the Western democratic tradition has imposed on governments. Contexts will be historical, cross-cultural, and contemporary American. Two units might be (1) the courts and (2) law enforcement.

Grade Three
Basic Theme: Transition of American society to more complex commercial systems (to town, to city).

The unit contexts will be drawn largely from environments which are moving toward town or urban settings in historical contexts, or moving from already established urban settings to more complex urban settings in contemporary society. These changing environments are the arenas where social forces (technological, economic, and values) interact and generate conflict. The political system enters the arena as the arbiter of the conflict. Thus, the political science concepts highlighted in Grade Two are repeated. The greater complexity of the contexts in this grade provides the opportunity for a more systematic treatment of economic and sociological concepts. In addition, geographical concepts will be treated as they are relevant to each context.

Social Science Disciplines: (in approximate order of emphasis)

economics
sociology
political science
geography
history

Use of Specific Criteria:

1. The individual, the family, and small sub-groups will be emphasized.

2. The ethical dilemmas will be public policy issues, but viewed primarily from the personal or sub-group perspective.

3. Middle-level authoritative decision-makers will be dealt with, e.g., local law enforcement agencies, courts, legislative and administrative apparatus of local government and informal neighborhood associations.

4. The political system--its necessity, function, processes, and constraints--will continue to be emphasized in order for the child to comprehend the relationship of government to the resolution of social conflict.

5. Economic concepts, sociological concepts, and geographic concepts will be major themes of this grade.

6. Societies in the process of transition and the pressures resulting from transition are major emphases.

7. See Grade One.

Tentative Contexts:

1. The New England Town (this unit will probably be set in colonial America, late seventeenth or early eighteenth century, and in a town which is at the point of becoming an important commercial center.)

2. An Early Industrial Community (this unit might be set in nineteenth century American, in a town like Lawrence, Massachusetts, which moved from a largely rural area to a highly developed industrial area in a very short period of time.)

3-7. The remaining units will be set in contemporary American urban contexts. The dilemmas will be those which result from a changing urban environment. Possible contexts include St. Louis, urban renewel, zoning, public health, recreation, courts.

Grade Four.

Basic Theme: Transition of non-American societies to more complex commercial systems (to town, to city).

Grade four parallels grade three. The major difference is that unit contexts are taken from other countries and times; and are compared and contrasted to contemporary America. The explicit relationship between grades three and four will be strengthened through the use of a set of lessons which relate the contexts taught in the third grade to those taught in the fourth. Because the unit contexts are cross-cultural, geographic concepts play a significant role within each unit.

Social Science Disciplines: (in approximate order of emphasis)

economics
sociology
geography
political science
anthropology

Use of Specific Criteria:

1. The individual, family, and small sub-groups will continue to be emphasized.

2. The ethical dilemmas will continue to be public policy issues, but viewed from the personal or sub-group perspective, or from the perspective of the sub-group and society simultaneously.

3. Middle-level authoritative decision-makers will continue to be emphasized.

4. The political system, its functions, processes (and constraints where they exist in the cross-cultural contexts) will continue to be emphasized.

5. Economic and sociological concepts will be emphasized. Inasmuch as the units are cast in a cross-cultural context, geography will be a major theme of this grade. The world will be divided into geographic regions, and each region will be treated.

6. Each unit will focus on a society in the process of transition from a rural to urban or from urban to a more complex urban environment.

7. See Grade one.

Tentative Contexts: (Each unit will deal with a separate dilemma, and the unit contexts will be chosen so that all geographic regions of the world will be included. Societies in an urban setting, or in the transition to town or urban settings, will be chosen.)

1. Mexico: small village and Mexico City--present day.

2. Cultural autonomy in contemporary Africa.

3. Public education in Japan.

4-7. Additional cross-cultural units might deal with India, Germany, and Hawaii.

Grade Five.

Basic Theme: Conflict among groups, and between groups and society as a consequence of social change.

In grades one through four the dilemmas have been viewed from the perspective of the individual, the family, and, on occasion, the small sub-group. Yet in society, conflicts often occur among larger social groups, among formal and informal institutions, or between larger social groups and society. Conflict may occur among religious groups, ethnic minorities, economic and professional groups (farmers, laborers, management, bankers), or there may be conflict between one or more of these groups and the larger society. In a pluralistic society sub-groups are encouraged to organize and to pursue their interests. However, unavoidable tensions grow out of the tendency of the sub-group to protect itself or to extend its influence and power over the society through the political and economic system.

In the fifth grade then, contexts will focus on groups in society. The theme of transition of society to more complex forms will continue through this grade as in grades three and four, but with the emphasis on societal sub-groups.

Social Science Disciplines: (in approximate order of emphasis)

political science
sociology
economics
geography
anthropology
history

Use of Specific Criteria:

1. Larger social groups, and the manner in which they operate in society, will be introduced in this grade. Examples of such groups include ethnic minorities, racial minorities, and economic groups such as farmers, miners, small businessmen, etc.

2. All dilemmas will be public policy issues viewed from the perspective of the sub-group and the total society simultaneously.

3. Middle-level authoritative decision-makers will continue to be used, and high-level authoritative decision-makers will be used where feasible. For example, the legislative, judicial, and administrative apparatus on the federal level could be used.

4. The political system--its functions, processes, and

constraints--will continue to be emphasized. The complex nature of the dilemmas and the use of middle and high-level authoritative decision-makers will make it possible to present the political system in a relatively sophisticated manner.

5. Sociological and geographic concepts will be emphasized. Economic institutions as decision-makers outside of the arena of public policy will also be emphasized.

6. Societies in transition will remain a continuing theme, and each unit will focus on the change from a rural to an urban environment, or from an urban to a more complex urban environment.

7. See Grade one.

Tentative Contexts:

1. The Negro in America (or) Indians in America

2. Immigrants in the 1850's

3. Gandhi in India

4. Japanese-Americans in World War II

5. The Chinese in Malaysia

6. Africans in present-day London

Grade Six

Basic Theme: Dilemmas of American Society; the control of international conflict.

In this year students are asked to examine dilemmas that involve groups and society, and higher level authoritative decision-makers. The theme of the earlier grades is continued--the impact of social changes on societies, especially within an urban setting. Since the adult must deal ultimately with dilemmas within his own society, the emphasis is on the student's own society. For the first time the child is introduced to an extended study of the contemporary American urban setting where a large number of public policy conflicts occur simultaneously. Contexts taken from American history will be used for purposes of contrast and comparison. The problem of the control of international conflict is introduced because of the seriousness of this general world problem and its relationship to the survival of American society.

Social Science Disciplines: (in approximate order of emphasis)

political science
history
economics
sociology
geography

Use of Specific Criteria

1. Larger social groups, and the manner in which they operate in society, will be emphasized in this grade.

2. All dilemmas will be public policy dilemmas viewed from the perspective of the sub-group and the total society simultaneously.

3. High-level authoritative decision-makers and structures will be emphasized in this grade, e.g., federal agencies, metropolitan governments, etc.

4. The political system--its functions, processes, and constraints--will continue to be emphasized. The complex nature of the dilemmas and the use of middle and high-level authoritative decision-makers will make it possible to present the political system in a relatively sophisiticated manner.

5. Sociological and geographic concepts will be emphasized. Economic institutions as decision-makers outside of the arena of public policy will also be emphasized.

6. Societies in transition will remain a continuing theme, and each unit will focus on the change from a rural to an urban environment, or from an urban to a more complex urban environment.

7. See Grade one.

8. One additional criterion has been developed for grade six. As a terminal unit, the child will be introduced to one of the overriding ethical dilemmas which modern man faces--the control of conflict on the international level.

Tentative Contexts:

1. The American Revolution

2. The World of Colonial America

3. The Westward Movement

4. The New Deal

5. The Changing Metropolis

6. The Control of International Conflict in Today's World

An Illustration of a Context Indended for the Fourth Grade.

Focus. The context is set in contemporary Mexico. The dilemma focus of the Mexico unit is "change versus stability," that is, the conflict between men's need for a degree of stability in their lives and their desire for changes that will bring greater wealth, security, justice or freedom. In the case of this context, we have personalized the dilemma for the students by involving them in the problems of a poor Mexican family, the Vegas, who live a precarious existence in the rural community of "Azteca." The core of the unit is the Vegas' decision to change their entire way of life by moving from a rural village to the urban environment of Mexico City, and the problems they must confront as a result of their decision. Hence, "urbanization," and its consequences, is the specific change which provides the major focus for this set of lessons.

Organization. The organization of the Mexico unit reflects four interrelated aims: (1) to involve the students personally in the problems of the Vegas; (2) to teach the students an array of social science concepts--the basic concept of urbanization and related concepts, e.g., subsistence, economic interdependence, etc.--necessary for understanding the Vegas' dilemma and the change-stability dilemma as a whole; (3) to develop thought-process skills, especially those related to decision-making, by a carefully structured sequence of lessons; and, (4) to have students make social science predictions when confronted by a set of different change-stability situations, using their knowledge gained in the Mexico unit as a basis for prediction.

The Lessons. Below is a brief description of the lessons of the Mexico unit and the materials and teaching strategies employed.

> **Introduction** (lessons 1 and 2). The first two lessons introduce the concept of urbanization, which unifies the entire Mexico unit. Lesson 1 presents geographic concepts and teaches some simple map skills. The students also learn the concept of a foreign country and Mexico as a foreign country. Lesson 2, which focuses on urbanization, places the particular problem of the Vegas into the perspective of the general problem of urbanization. In the context of Mexico's transition from a pre-industrial to an industrial society, the students are introduced to the differences in values, social structure, and economic structure in rural

and urban Mexico, and they learn that urbanization is a critical problem in contemporary Mexico.

Dilemma Setting and Conceptual Background: Rural Mexico (lessons 3-8). This section places the dilemma of change-stability in the setting of rural Mexico. In this sequence of lessons it is essential that the students gain social science knowledge and a number of simple intellectual skills which are necessary for dealing with the dilemma. The students learn that rural society in Mexico is a tradition-oriented society, that rural life is characterized by a certain amount of predictability and stability, that ties to the community are close, that the farmers take pride in their ownership of land, that social and occupational status remain constant from generation to generation, and that education is not essential for the performance of economic roles. Throughout the rural section we emphasize both the difficulties--poverty, hard work, economic insecurity--and satisfactions--pride in land, enjoyment of community life, a familiar environment--of the Vegas' life in this setting, since the students will need to understand both in order for them to see that there is a dilemma.

This knowledge is acquired through a "personalized" study of a single Mexican peasant family, the Vegas. The children become acquainted with the individual members of the Vega family--their life in the village, their daily tasks, their home life and their problems--mainly through the eyes of Carlos Vega, a boy about their age.

In this section, as in other dilemma setting sections, the students do more than passively absorb information. They are challenged to relate information, support generalizations, and make simple inferences.

Dilemma-posing (lessons 9-12). The sequence of lessons from 9-12 is designed to introduce the dilemma of whether the Vegas should stay in Azteca or move to Mexico City and to clarify the arguments relevant to both choices. In order to create emotional involvement on the part of the students, we have set lesson 9 in an American city where a poor American family is arguing about whether to move to another city. In lessons 10-12, the students must make a decision about whether the Vegas should move or not and learn to handle their arguments with greater and greater precision. It is here that the students must unify and relate the knowledge they have learned in the rural section. They should be familiar with the arguments for moving (the poverty of the family and the expectation of a better life in the city) and the arguments against moving (the predictability and familiarity of village life and the uncertainty of the future).

As in all the arguments over dilemmas, the discussion is left open-ended--either position is accepted if it can be supported logically. However, particular emphasis is placed on having students analyze their own arguments, and those of their peers, to separate empirical claims from value claims.

Transition (lesson 13). In the dilemma-posing section the students are not given a "right" answer. Rather, they are simply informed in lesson 13 that the father of the family has decided the family should move.

Lesson 13 is a transition lesson, designed to create emotional impact by revealing the hopes and fears of the Vegas as they leave Azteca and their initial reactions of anticipation and disappointment as they come to their new home in Mexico City.

Dilemma Setting #2 (lesson 14). Lesson 14 introduces the students to life in an urban environment. The students learn some of the consequences of the Vegas' decision to move--how their daily lives, their occupations, and their environment have changed. They learn that the father now sells hats in the plaza and misses his land, and that two of the women in the family must now earn money to supplement the family income.

Dilemma Posing and Conceptual Background (lessons 15-21). Understanding the significance of these changes in the lives of the Vegas is essential for understanding the dimensions of the original choice to move. Lesson 15 introduces the major decision that faces the Vegas as a result of this choice. The problem is whether Carlos Vega should continue to go to school or work for his father and help the family financially. This second dilemma is a result of the original decision and not a separate problem. In order to deal with the second dilemma the students must understand both how life in a rural environment has affected the Vegas' values and how the city environment places different demands on them than the rural environment.

In lessons 16-19 the arguments for and against Carlos staying in school are presented in couplets of lessons. Lesson 16 explores the father's traditional values, particularly the value he places on having his sons work with him, and lesson 17, by contrast, explores the requirements of urban life, particularly the necessity of education for success in an urban society. Lesson 18 reinforces the concept of the marginal economic circumstances of the Vega family and lesson 19 develops the argument of the future economic value of an education.

Lessons 20 and 21 involve the students in position-taking on the school dilemma. In lesson 20 the students must make a personal decision about the dilemma after watching a slide-tape in which they see the issue from Carlos' point of view. In lesson 21 the students are told that Carlos' father has decided to take him out of school and they are asked to evaluate the father's decision. They must justify their positions with valid evidence and reasons, clarify their opinions when pressed by the teacher and other students, and make a final decision. Again, it should be emphasized that no "right" answer is given.

Social Science Prediction and Change-Stability Dilemma (lesson 22). The concluding lesson is a "predicting" lesson. It builds on the knowledge the students have gained from all previous lessons. Students are given brief examples of other change-stability dilemmas, some similar to the Vegas' dilemma and others in which the relationship cannot be so clearly seen. They are then asked to make predictions based on the information they have been given in the short case studies and in the Mexico unit as a whole. This lesson serves to teach that the change-stability dilemma is a general issue related to many cultures, including the United States, and not just a "Mexico problem."

The Teaching of Thought Process Skills and Social Science Concepts. Thought-process skills and social science concepts are programmed into every unit. The following two sections clarify how these two elements are unified within the Mexico unit.

Thought-Process Skills. Thought-Process skills are taught mainly in the dilemma-posing sections of each unit. However, skills such as making inferences and generalizations, presenting evidence, and making supporting statements are emphasized in every lesson.

In the dilemma-posing sections we use a three step process in the early grades to teach the students how to deal with the dilemmas. First, the students must become emotionally involved with the problem itself. To achieve this objective, we use analogies from their own experience (argument of an American family over moving) and engage them in role-playing. At this stage, the students take a preliminary personal position on the dilemma. Second, the students must understand the empirical arguments supporting each side of the dilemma. At this stage we emphasize the need to present evidence and evaluate it and the need to predict what the consequences of one decision or another might mean. For example, in the urban section the students are asked what life will be like in the future for the Vegas if Carlos does or does not continue in school.

The third stage is a position-taking stage. The student must reconsider his initial position in the light of strong empirical or value arguments supporting the alternate view. Analogies are used to clarify and to challenge value arguments and the student's value position. He then takes a final position on the dilemma.

Social Science Concepts and Generalizations. Economic, social, political and geographical concepts are taught in each unit, although usually a unit will focus on one or two of these fields.

The understanding of a dilemma will involve comprehension of a matrix of social science concepts and generalizations associated with the context of the dilemma. For example, in the Mexico unit, an understanding of urbanization, social class, the relationship between education and occupational status, and so forth, is necessary in order to handle the dilemma. These concepts are drawn from the dilemma and the specific context in which the dilemma is cast; they are not taught as part of the structure of a discipline or in purely abstract form.

Teaching Aids, Materials and Strategies. We have developed teaching aids that include lesson plans, tapes of demonstration classes, teaching guides for using simulation, role-play, small group discussion, and other more conventional teaching strategies. Each lesson plan includes an overview, a section on relationship of the lesson to past and future lessons, a statement of lesson objectives, a list of materials, an outline of phases of the lesson, and a suggested procedure with comments. Teaching materials include tapes, slide-tapes (a tape synchronized with slides on a carousel projector), programmed materials, texts, narratives, games, transparencies, and various other audio-visual devices.

We select materials according to the criteria of (1) whether they are appropriate to the age and skills of students and (2) whether the materials are appropriate vehicles for fulfilling lesson objectives. As a consequence of the first criterion, we will rely more on audio-visual materials in the earlier grades and in the later grades we will rely more on texts and written materials.

The materials developed by the project are intended to accomplish specific lesson objectives. Audio-visual materials are not simply used as devices to stimulate student interest--they are used to present ideas and concepts that the students might not be able to understand in other forms. In the Mexico unit, we use slide-tapes to create emotional involvement, to present information, and to dramatize conflict situations. We use transparencies with overlays to teach the students to draw inferences as more and more data is presented to them. We employ a sorting game in lesson 17 to clarify the differences between rural and urban life and a budget game in lesson 18 to emphasize the marginal existence of the Vega family. In other words, all materials are always appropriate for the lesson objectives and are integrated into the lessons.

In the same manner, the selection of teaching strategies depends on (1.) the skills of the students and (2) the goals of the lessons. Strategies range from self-teaching exercises for the students to teacher-led discussions set up by the audio-visual materials, and "Socratic dialogues" in which the teacher directs the lines of communication. Other strategies include simulation, small-group discussion, and role-play.

CHAPTER V

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter deals with a review of the literature relevant to the two problems cited in this report. These are (a) the problem of the dissemination and implementation of new social studies curricula, and (b) the need for an elementary school social studies curriculum with a new focus. Literature related to the first problem has been divided into two sections: the process of change, and criteria for the analysis of new social studies curricula. The last section of this chapter treats the literature related to political socialization which was omitted from the discussion in Chapter III.

The Process of Change

The demands for changes in the American educational system are illustrated amply in both scholarly and popular literature, in the speeches before educational conventions, in several conferences that have been devoted specifically to change[1] (and in several newer programs supported by the U. S. Office of Education). A recent review of curriculum innovations in the social studies (Michaelis, 1965), cites thirty-three separate curriculum projects, encompassing the areas of economics, history, geography, anthropology, and including multi-discipline projects.

Change has been described as "an undefined, primitive term," (Miles, 1964, p.4) which implies that between two given time periods an alteration of some kind takes place. The process of change has been of considerable interest to researchers. Over 172 different research studies related to educational innovations have been conducted since 1938. (Rogers, 1962, p.4). Most of these studies have been concerned with the rate of diffusion of innovations.

Mort's studies (Rogers, 1962, pp. 40-41) describe a number of general factors which inhibit the diffusion of educational innovations.

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[1] The most recent conference to study the topic of "Educational Change" was held in Washington, D. C., on November 8-10, 1965, under the auspices of the United States Office of Education and Ohio State University. Previous conferences on the same topic include a seminar conducted by the Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration at the University of Oregon, held in Portland, Oregon, in 1964.

Non-acceptance, or slowness to accept, were related to (a) the absence of a scientific source of innovations in education; (b) the lack of change agents to promote educational ideas; and (c) the lack of an economic incentive to adopt innovations. Jencks notes that innovations have not appreciably diminished the fundamental parochialism of the majority of schools, the stultifying social standards imposed by the students on one another, and tacitly supported by the teachers, and the chauvinistic self-congratulatory view of the world conveyed by the textbooks and staff alike (Jencks, 1964, p.5). Until recently, little attention was given to discovering the dynamics of the change process itself, and to identifying the factors that facilitate or impede change-attempts. (Reynolds, 1965). Our review concentrated on (1) change agents, (2) change models, and (3) factors related to the success or failure of change.

Change Agents. A wide number of people, institutions, and forces are involved in the process of educational innovation. Mackenzie (1964, pp. 409-417) divides change participants into two groups: internal and external. Internal participants include students, teachers, principals, supervisors, superintendents, boards of education, local citizen groups, state boards, state legislatures, and state and federal courts. External participants include non-educationists (both individuals and groups), foundations, academicians (both individuals and groups), business and industry, educationists (e.g., NEA, NCSS), and the federal government (Mackenzie, 1964).

Change Models. There have been a number of attempts to conceptualize the change process. These conceptualizations fall into two categories: (a) informal or "naturalistic" models, and (b) formal change models.

Naturalistic or Informal: The work of Lewin and Grabbe (1945, p.64) suggests a three-phase process: (1) unfreeze, (2) move, and (3) refreeze. This argument is replicated and/or expanded in other works. Lippitt, et. al., (1958, p.130) outlines five general phases of the change process. These include (1) the development of a need for change (the "unfreezing" stage in the Lewin model), (2) the establishment of a change relationship, (3) working toward change, (4) generalization and stabilization of change, and (5) achieving a terminal relationship. Rogers (1962, p.17) suggests that the process is characterized by awareness, interest, evaluation, trial, and adoption. The work of Miles (1964, p.21) notes four stages: (1) design of innovation, (2) local awareness and interest, (3) local evaluation, and (4) local trial. MacKenzie (1964, pp.420-423) suggests the following classifications: (1) criticism of existing circumstances,

(2) proposal of changes, (3) development and clarification of proposals for action, (4) evaluation, review and reformulation of proposals, and (5) comparison of proposals, where related and/or alternative proposals existed. Although the number of stages, and the terminology used to describe stages, changes from study to study, the general pattern is consistent. To use the definitions supplied by Bennis (1962, pp.154-156), a good deal of change in the schools takes place under interactional circumstances, i.e., non-deliberate transactions between teachers, administrators, etc., or under natural circumstances, i.e., with no goal-setting processes involved. These might be termed "informal" in that they rely on influence, persuasion, or prestige factors for successful diffusion. Miles (1964, p.26) offers several examples of this "informal" model of planned change. They include national curriculum study groups such as PSSC, SMSG, etc.,[2] regional research organizations of the type proposed by the Oregon Department of Education under U. S. Office of Education sponsorship and university-school collaboration schemes.[3]

Formal Models for Planned Change: A search of the literature reveals that there exist a number of formal models for planned change. The work of David Clark and Guba (1965, p.10) suggests that change can be described on a continuum which includes research, development, diffusion, and adoption, with each stage sub-divided. The Clark-Guba model suggests that each stage has a particular objective, "that whether or not those objectives are met is judged by the application of certain criteria which are different for each stage, and that each stage bears a particular relation to the change process." (p.9) The schema presented by Clark and Guba suggests that these are not merely processes related to change in education, but processes necessary for effective change. Woodruff (1965) has developed a "Model of a Strategy Pattern for Developing an Educational Program" that looks

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[2] It is interesting to note that in the social studies there are no comparable units to PSSC and SMSG.

[3] Examples of this last type of "informal" model for planned change include the University of Pittsburgh's Regional Commission on Educational Coordination, the University of Wisconsin's Improvement Center, the University of Chicago's School Improvement Program, and Harvard University's School and University Program for Research and Development.

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The analysis of "temporary systems" by Miles (1964, pp.437-490) is of substantial interest. The temporary system as a model for educational innovation appears to have the following beneficial characteristics: (a) it provides an opportunity for increased validation of the desirability of a particular innovation, (b) as autonomous units with a "permanent system," it can operate independently of the restrictive characteristics of the permanent system, and (c) it allows the process of educational change to become a more manageable process. (Miles, 1964, p.485). In summarizing the work of Miles, Bhola notes the following:

> Temporary systems were found to provide an environment of openness; a focus on the organization rather than separate individuals; an opportunity for system problem-solving as a mode of work; a release of energy

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[4] Brickell (1964) argues that the administrator is the principle agent of change and suggests that teachers are not powerful change agents in the schools. Changes made by teachers fall only into these categories: classroom practice, relocation of curriculum content, and introduction of single special courses at the high school level.

> from routine day-to-day activities; and a carry over and transfer of new attitudes, norms, and solutions from the temporary systems to the permanent systems. (1965, p.90).

Factors Related to Success and Failure of Change. The literature on educational innovation reveals two distinct problems: (a) the nature of the client system (the educational institution), and (b) the weakness of research in general.

The Client System: Miles (1964, p.40) outlines four specific problems characteristic of educational systems which might make the change process a difficult one. The first is the difficulty of measuring the output of schools. No clear criterion of behavior for the system is available. Second, there is a tendency on the part of educators to support the view that educational "products" must be assessed over a lifetime.[5] Third, the distance between lay and professional competence is narrower in education than in other fields--everyone has experienced an educational system and uses this experience to lay claim to expertise. Lastly, Miles suggests that educational systems are operated by people who are themselves instruments of change, and they often create resistance to evaluation and innovation of any kind. There are a number of special properties of an educational system which might also act as potential obstacles to change. (Miles, 1965). These include goal ambiguity (the inability, or unwillingness, to define goals precisely), input variability (the school as a client system serves all people), role performance invisibility (the teacher in the classroom is invisible to peers and superiors, and thus subject to little criticism), low interdependence (related to role performance invisibility, teachers often view their students as people who have never been taught before), vulnerability (the teacher's product is the child, and the teacher is therefore receptive to a number of external pressures), lay-professional control problems (a group of non-educators, the school board, is responsible for determining educational policy), and low technological investment (the majority of any school system's budget, upwards from sixty to seventy per cent, is set aside for teachers' salaries). Miles (1964, p.11) suggests one additional characteristic: curriculum planners are convinced that any subject can be taught to any student at any time, and that teachers are the ones who are ineducable and the main barriers to education.

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[5] The National Assessment Project currently sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education is related to this tendency.

Weakness in Research: Research weaknesses relative to the process of change are numerous. Rogers points out the following:

> All but a handful of some 178 studies of education diffusion have utilized the school system as the unit of analysis and the school administrator as the chief source of data. These studies have provided rich findings, but only on the nature of school-to-school diffusion. We also need much research on how change occurs within a school. (1965, p.8).

Mort's studies concentrated on isolating the variables which produced innovations in schools, but ignored the consequences of innovations. (Rogers, p.8).

Lippit (1958, p.164) suggests that research is needed to identify precisely how much influence a change agent has had on the course of change within a system. Bhola (1965, p.2) indicates that no worthwhile taxonomy in the area of innovation is presently available. Noting that the work of Bloom (1956), Krathwohl (1965), and Melton (1964) can be useful in a limited sense, Bhola (1965, p.4) suggests a taxonomy for the study of innovation along the following lines: philosophic considerations, content of innovations, nature of inventors, innovators, and adopters, process and tactics of diffusion, and measurement and evaluation. Finally, Rogers (1962), who reviewed more than 500 publications on the diffusion of innovations, says "a search of the literature shows little attempt to summarize and evaluate available results and theories on the spread of ideas."

In summary, our review of educational innovation suggested a number of hypotheses which were relevant to our proposed model. First, considerable emphasis is placed on an awareness of a need for change. Meierhenry (1965, p.22) draws a relationship between educational innovation and research in sociology, wherein he argues that change occurs when a "culture" is in imbalance, and the struggle to restore balance is the change process. Rogers (1962, p.284) notes that the client system must recognize a need for innovation before it can be introduced. Gallagher (1965) argues that variables related to the success of innovation include the client system's expectation of and felt need for change. A second hypothesis suggested by the literature is related to the importance of the creation of an environment for change. Bhola (1965, p.93) believes that developmental care and planning is crucial to success. Closely related to the need for careful planning is organizational health. Halpin (1958, 1965) and Griffiths (1959) are of the opinion that organizational health is the key to success in the diffusion of innovation. The literature further argues that new change agents must be created. Finally the literature demonstrates that a concern for the target system and the personnel of that system is important to the success of an innovation. Mackenzie's summary of the Teacher's College studies points up a number of unintended consequences, including the lowering of staff morale and the failure to establish the intended change. Gallagher (1965) suggests that the margin of security of the people in the client system is an important variable in the change process. A position supported by the work of Rogers (1962, p.284) also suggests that the undesirable social consequences of innovations should be anticipated and prevented (1962, pp.124-133). These include the relative advantage of the innovation, compatibility with existing values and practices, the degree of difficulty the client system has in understanding the innovation, the extent of the pilot model of the innovation, and the ease with which the results of the pilot can be communicated to others. The problems of innovation are summarized by Pellegrin:

> Much existing research is low in quality, weak in the insight it imparts, and of dubious utility to the practitioner. Critics have noted a variety of deficiencies, including the following: (a) research has usually avoided crucial problems, focusing instead on topics of minor significance; (b) creativeness has been in short supply, most studies repeating earlier ones in more or less routine fashion; (c) theoretical and conceptual frameworks have been limited, lacking in sophistication and often unrelated to empirical research; (d) research has been deficient in methodological rigor at all stages in the research process from study design to data analysis; (e) research is not usually cumulative, i.e., the investigator does not build on previous research; and (f) research does not take advantage of the contributions of other disciplines in which relevant work has been done. (1965, p.72).

Existing Schema for the Analysis of Curricula.

A review of the literature suggests that there are a few existing analytical models which would assist in analyzing the quality of the social studies curricula. Beard has drafted two documents which have influenced our efforts to design a handbook for curriculum analysis. He suggests that the social studies must be conditioned by six factors: (1) the requirements of scholarship; (2) the nature of the social science disciplines; (3) the requirements of social reality; (4) the climate of American ideas; (5) the framework of law and established school programs; and (6) the teaching-learning process (Beard, 1932). He also clarifies the nature of social sciences and their relationship to the problem of selecting objectives for instruction. (Beard, 1934).

A second schema is suggested by Tyler (1950, p.32), who deals with the problem of stating objectives and develops a graphic, two-dimensional chart to assist in expressing objectives and evaluation of course content in terms of the objectives.[6]

Engle (1965) suggests that basic curriculum goals may be analyzed by placing them along a content and a process continuum. The content continuum ranges from aims of knowledge derived from study of separate subjects with no direct bearing on citizenship to content aimed at teaching ideals and values derived directly from experience. The process continuum ranges from a goal of fixing subject matter in mind and memory to a primary concern with the process of problem solving.

Taba discusses eleven elements or factors, which must be taken into consideration in the development of curriculum. Among the eleven major elements she includes the analysis of society and culture, learning theory, and the nature of knowledge. She argues the need for curriculum developers to identify, clearly, fundamental differences and agreements among curriculum theories, and further argues that curriculum designs should make clear the bases for selection and the sources from which the criteria for selection are derived (Taba, 1962).

The schema suggested by Beard, Tyler, Engle, and Taba are, in our opinion, not wholly adequate. In the absence of adequate schema, the Center staff began to prepare a working draft of a Handbook for Curriculum Analysis. The major headings of the Handbook were outlined and are given in Chapter II.

Political Socialization.

As Greenstein points out, "No topic of political science has a longer and more distinguished lineage than citizenship training." (1965, p.62). Almost every important writer in the history of political theory has been concerned with this problem. However, the concern with citizenship education by classical political theorists was theoretical rather than empirical and until the 1950's very little was known about the initiation of children into the political system. (Greenstein, 1965).

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[6] Further discussion of the problem of stating objectives is found in Palmer (1965), Engle (1965), Metcalf (1963) and Dressel (1965).

In the past decade, political socialization has become the subject of widespread interest. However, the political scientists themselves have not produced much empirical research. Presently the greatest part of the political science literature is concerned with proving conceptual frameworks for empirical research and with collecting and integrating the scattered data from the other behavioral sciences.

A pivotal date in the study of political socialization is 1959, the year that Hyman published Political Socialization: A Study in the Psychology of Political Behavior. In this study Hyman "performed the valuable service of assembling certain of the earlier studies and re-analyzing them in terms of their political implications." (Greenstein, 1965, p.9). The studies Hyman examines relate subgroup differences such as sex, socio-economic status, and education, participation in politics, the direction of the goals (radical or conservative) and democratic-authoritarian attitudes. In a more recent unpublished paper, Froman (undated) undertakes a similar review of the literature. Since 1959 a number of theoretical and interpretive articles have appeared which offer conceptual clarifications and suggestions for empirical research. Sigel (1965) distinguishes between kinds of political learning: intentional vs. incidental, formal vs. informal. Key (1961), and Froman (1961) focus on agents of political socialization. Key examines the role of the family, educational system, and media in the development of political characteristics such as political party identification, political interest, and other political attitudes. Very little of the literature addresses itself to the role of the formal educational system. Easton (1957) and Dennis (1965) propose questions which should be investigated and lament the limited evidence in this area. Davies focuses on the role of the family in political socialization, considering the relation of such factors as social change and external crisis to family influences as well as the more obvious factors of parental authoritarianism and early socialization. He suggests that the effect of physical and social nurturance within the family has as yet remained unstudied. Prewitt (1965) examines various theories which account for recruitment into political leadership roles, and adds an additional hypothesis of his own. One issue of interest to several writers is the relationship of political socialization to the already considerable literature on general socialization and personality theory. Hypotheses and data generated from psychology and sociology are applied to political socialization by Froman (1961, 1962), Lane (1959), and Greenstein (1965). Seasholes "unites on a speculative basis two sets of information, one dealing with Negro adults and one with white political socialization," (1965, p.54), in order to examine the political socialization of Negroes. He presents some interesting hypotheses about development of partisanship, participation, sense of political effectiveness, information, and skillfulness of Negroes with respect to family patterns, and school influences, and proposes some ways of intervening in the educational process to improve political attitudes and skills. Almond and Verba (1963) studied factors relevant to various civic traits, using responses to interviews from adults of five cultures. They examine, for example, the influence of non-political authority patterns in family, school, and work place on political attitudes and specifies some of the complex interrelationships among these influences. Key (1961), using Survey Research Center data, also identifies some relationships between adult political traits and socialization agencies.

We located two major empirical studies of political socialization of children, Greenstein (1965), and Easton and Hess (1962). Easton and Hess administered a questionnaire to 300 elementary middle and lower class school children, grades two to eight from eight cities in the United States in an attempt to assess the child's knowledge and attitudes related to selected topics about the regime and political community. They reported preliminary findings in a number of journals, (1960, 1962, 1962, 1965). The final report of the study is presented in two volumes; however, only the first is now available. An important finding reported in this volume (Hess and Torney, 1965), is the degree of political learning and experience at the pre-high school level. They conclude also that the role of the family in the political socialization process has been over-estimated and that the major mediating influences are sex, socio-economic status, and IQ. They found that the child's conception of the government has the following developmental characteristics: from personalized to impersonalized; from national to local; from President to Congress. Children in their sample have developed an increasing ability to distinguish public from private sectors of society and show a uniformly favorable affective image of government. Greenstein (1965) used a questionnaire and interviews with children in the fourth through eighth grades. His findings both parallel and supplement those of the Hess study. Greenstein finds that knowledge of national affairs precedes local affairs, knowledge of executive precedes knowledge of legislative (as does Hess), and partisanship arises before issue orientation. Greenstein speculates but does not demonstrate that early learnings persist and argues that present socialization processes tend to preserve the status quo (Greenstein, 1965, pp.80-84). He concludes from his data, as does Hess, that children hold extremely benevolent attitudes toward governmental figures.

Several examinations of political attitudes and values of secondary school students have been reported. A study by Litt (1963) reports an investigation of the influence of several aspects of civic education on the secondary students in three high schools of differing social class backgrounds. He concludes that in each community there were differences in attitudes of community leaders and effects of courses on student political attitudes. Upper middle class students were oriented toward a "realistic" and active view of the political process while the working class students were oriented toward a more "idealistic" and passive view. Civic education classes apparently had no influence on these attitudes toward participating however, but apparently heightened support for democratic processes and negated chauvinistic sentiment. Newmann (1965) reports an exploratory clinical study of adolescents' justification of authority in which he isolates eight criteria for the acceptance of authority. On the basis of this study he suggests several classroom applications as well as a number of directions for additional investigation.

CHAPTER VI

EVALUATION

Evaluation has a central place in both projects of the Metropolitan St. Louis Social Studies Center, not only because of the importance of knowing whether the outcomes are worth the costs, but also because a carefully conceived and executed evaluation program may contribute basic knowledge of the functions of schooling, the teaching-learning process, and the process of innovation. The field station is a unique setting in which to study relationships within a school system, relationships among schools, and of school to university. The Elementary School Social Science Curriculum Development Project also provides an opportunity to add to our sparse knowledge of the teaching-learning process and the role of the school as an agency of political education. The orientation of the staff is to curriculum development and implementation, but there is also a commitment to the behavioral study of the on-going processes and the outcomes. While the primary goal is not to create a laboratory for research, the situations, the relationships, and organizational structures which are created are amenable to a wide range of empirical approaches--participant observation, systematic observation, structured interviews, paper and pencil measures, etc.

Curriculum Evaluation--Some Clarification. Curriculum development projects and granting agencies have looked to psychometricians and educational researchers to provide the conceptions and techniques for evaluation of curriculum. Behavioral science is an important source for conceptions and techniques of empirical curriculum evaluation, but curriculum developers have tended to borrow from the behavioral sciences uncritically. Cronbach, whose credentials as a measurement specialist are impressive, recently addressed himself to the inadequacies of "familiar doctrines and rituals of the testing game," (Cronbach, 1964, p. 231), and we concur in much of what he says. However, we also hold that there are some aspects of curriculum evaluation that are beyond the province of the psychometricians and other behavioral scientists.

Although we cannot argue our position fully here, we will repeat part of the argument made earlier in Chapter II. If a school system wants to judge the worth, or "evaluate," a new curriculum they would want to know, first, does the curriculum achieve what it purports to achieve, and second, does the curriculum purport to achieve anything worthwhile. The difference between these two questions is crucial. Perhaps a simple analogy may clarify the distinction. Suppose we want to "evaluate" the atom bomb. The first question we may ask is whether the atom bomb does what it is supposed to do, that is, explode. However, it is quite another matter to ask the questions of whether we should explode atom bombs or in what circumstances and conditions they should be exploded. The first question raises only empirical issues; the second question raises a complex of questions including basic ethical issues. Our point is that in working with curriculum evaluation, the psychometrician and the educational researcher sometimes do not recognize the limitations of their techniques for dealing with the second type of question. The behavioral scientist can answer the first question, whether the curriculum achieves what it intends to, because his empirical techniques are appropriate to its solution. However, the question of what educational program should be pursued in the schools cannot be wholly resolved by the collection of empirical data. Empirical data alone cannot resolve the value issues inherent in the second question.

Although arguments over basic goals cannot be resolved wholly by empirical means, it does not follow that such disputes are beyond human reason. On the contrary, we contend that human reason can be used to choose among curriculum alternatives. In order to help schools deal with basic policy issues in social studies education, a Handbook for Curriculum Analysis (described in Chapter II) is being prepared.

We use the term "curriculum analysis" to refer to the determination of whether a curriculum attempts to do something worthwhile. As used in this report, the term "evaluation" is restricted to the conduct of empirical investigations of curricular outcomes; that is, to determinations of the effect of a curriculum innovation in the schools. The importance of these empirical investigations are by no means diminished by our concern with analysis of basic curriculum issues.

Evaluation Plans of the Implementation Project.

Three categories of outcomes will be evaluated in the Implementation Project.

> Intended Outcomes. The Implementation Project intends to affect teachers, school systems, and students. Some of these outcomes can be expressed in terms of teachers' and students' increased knowledge and others in terms of changed administrative arrangements for curriculum implementation. These are the explicit, desired goals of the project.
>
> Expected Outcomes. These are outcomes that are not necessarily desired, but are nonetheless expected. For example, in some schools the project may elicit a certain amount of anxiety

among teachers over their competency, and there may be friction among some of the lower level administrators. We also expect that teachers not directly involved in the project will become more interested in curriculum design and implementation.

Unintended and Unexpected. There is a great deal of evidence that changes in the institutional framework of the school or in the curriculum may lead to unanticipated effects which may or may not be desirable. For instance, concentrated work in the social studies may lead to a reexamination of other parts of the school program. There may be unanticipated effects on the median age of the staff or in the rate of staff turnover. The evaluation model is constructed to be sufficiently comprehensive to be sensitive to such changes.

The Central Implementation Staff includes a measurement specialist and a social psychologist who share responsibility for specifying and administering the overall evaluation program and for conducting related research. The Field Station Staff, however, also shares part of this responsibility with the Central Implementation Staff. The responsibilities of both are given below.

Summary of Variables to be Investigated by Central Implementation Staff.

Individual Variables.

Cognitive learning outcomes of the Field Station Staff: The expectation is that all personnel in field stations will learn a process of curriculum analysis (as defined in the Handbook) and will become more sophisticated in curriculum decision-making and in the social sciences. At regular intervals, learning outcome measures will be administered to the staff of field stations. The instruments to be used, paper and pencil tests and terminal interviews, will be constructed by the staff.

Attitude change: Attitudes toward the process of change, toward the involvement of a new project in the schools, and toward social and behavioral science scholarship are likely to be affected by the Implementation Project. No appropriate measures for these purposes could be found so we will rely on our own paper and pencil measures and interviews. We are interested in changes that may occur in the social studies curriculum specialists, the field station teachers, superintendents, principals, administrative liaison agents, and the social studies teachers (other than master teachers) in the field and radial schools.

Social System Variables. The Project may alter the social system of a school. Communication patterns, lines of responsibility, and division of labor may change; these changes are either intended or expected. But of special interest are the developments that are neither intended nor expected. For instance, in the field and radial schools there could be changes in who exercises curriculum leadership with a consequent shift in the status hierarchy. Participant observer techniques, as reported by Smith and Geoffrey (1965) and such measures as Halpin and Croft's (1963) instrument for assessing organizational climate, seem to hold promise. Other instruments that may be adapted and used are given in the Appendix.

Institutional Variables. The formal structure of a participating school system may be modified for the use of the field station as an innovative mechanism. There may be alteration in the organization of chain of authority, the level of bureaucratization, the degree of "openness-closedness." Such dimensions will be evaluated by several tools of sociological analysis, e.g., instruments devised by Brumbaugh (1963) and Cornell, Lindvall and Saupe (1952).

Summary of Variables to be Investigated by the Field Station Staff. The purpose of implementing new curricula is to improve social studies teaching; that is, to bring about desirable changes in learning by students. Thus, the evaluation program conducted by each field station focuses on the changes that take place in students and in the classroom interaction between teachers and students. Evaluation will be conducted with the advice and assistance of the Central Staff evaluation specialists. When feasible, the field station will use or adapt the instruments developed as part of the original curriculum project. However, in many cases the pilot curriculum will have been modified to the point that the original evaluation instruments cannot be used or must be adapted. The variables to be investigated by the Field Station Staff are:

Learning Outcomes of Students.
Cognitive learning: This includes social science concepts, substantive findings, and intellectual processes. Paper and pencil measures will be used as well as systematic observation and content analysis of group or individual interviews.

Affective learning: Changes in affective learning will be assessed by paper and pencil tests, as well as systematic observation and content analysis. In most instances, measures must be found or created.

Teacher-Student Interaction Patterns.

Cognitive: Analysis will be done of the logical verbal behaviors of the teacher in selected classrooms and of the "style" of teacher-student interaction. For instance, if the curriculum indicated the style of the teaching is to be "inductive" (which presumably is defined by the curriculum builder), is there evidence that "inductive" teaching actually goes on? Systematic observation systems are appropriate for this type of evaluation.

Non-cognitive: The student and teacher engage in a variety of non-cognitive verbal classroom behaviors. For instance, many control statements are made by teachers. In some classrooms there is a good deal of affect, positive or negative, which strictly speaking, is not part of the cognitive message. Non-cognitive observation systems, of which there are many, can be used for this type of assessment.

How Can Evaluation Data Gathered in the Field Station Schools be used by Other Schools Who Wish to Innovate in Social Studies Curricula?[2] The Implementation Project is designed to provide a setting for the pilot and diffusion of new educational practices in the social studies. However, a major goal of the project is to facilitate and disseminate new curricula and facilitate curriculum change in schools not directly involved in the field stations. One device for insuring some dissemination is to encourage the participation in the field stations of teachers and administrators from other schools for short or extended periods of time. Plans for such visits are outlined in Chapter II. However, there are serious limitations to this sort of activity. More systematic and precise knowledge of the innovation than can be collected in an informal visit is needed if an innovation is to be transplanted into a new setting. We have just outlined an elaborate plan for accumulating empirical reports of the outcomes of the innovation in the field and radial schools. But such data is useless unless we know the characteristics of School A (the field or radial school) and School X (the school which is interested in the same innovation) and can determine whether these characteristics are sufficiently comparable to warrent the introduction of the curricular innovation from School A to School X.

Although there are a number of possible solutions to this problem, the following is a means of making a comparison of schools on the basis of objectively determined characteristics.

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[2] This subsection is based on a paper by Johnson (1967), "Stratification in the Context of Regional Educational Research," prepared for the Central Midwestern Regional Educational Laboratory. The authors gratefully acknowledge Mr. Johnson's contribution to the evaluation model.

The evaluation design will be based essentially on two components: (1) a multivariate stratification of the school districts and schools included in the study using a large number of relevant characteristics which can be used to describe a community or a school; and (2) a fractional factor analysis of the relationship between the stratifying factor "scores" and the performance on the set of evaluation instruments. Following is a model of the proposed design:

Figure VI-1.

Project Model

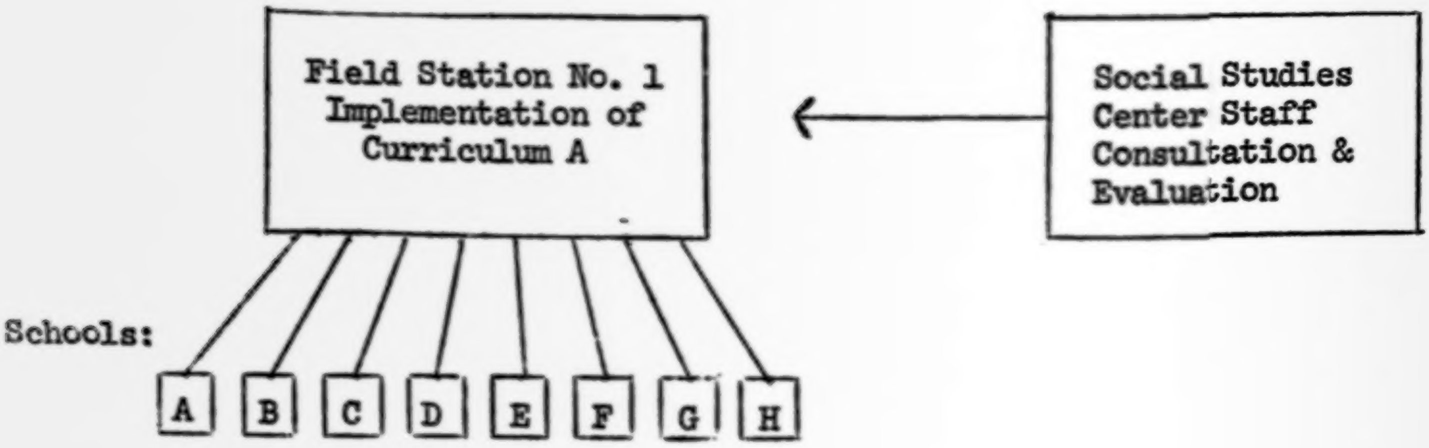
Field Station No. 1
Implementation of
Curriculum A
Social Studies
Center Staff
Consultation &
Evaluation
Schools:
A
B
C
D
E
F
G
H

Figure VI-2.

Possible Evaluation Design

	Stratifying Factors							Scores on sets of Evaluation Instruments		
School	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	I	II	III
A	-	-	-	+	+	+	-			
B	+	-	-	-	-	+	+			
C	-	+	-	-	+	-	+			
D	+	+	-	+	-	-	-			
E	-	-	+	+	-	-	+			
F	+	-	+	-	+	-	-			
G	-	+	+	-	-	+	-			
H	+	+	+	+	+	+	+			

The basic methodology is a modification and extension of the analytic procedures and sampling methodology originally developed by the Wisconsin Group for the purpose of sampling the population of elementary school teachers in the State of Wisconsin (Conry, Wiley, Pruzek, Wolfe, and Miller, 1965). Data on the relevant characteristics of the communities and districts of the St. Louis area are readily available. Multivariate analysis of the available information using both principal components analysis (Hotelling, 1963) and image analysis (Guttman, 1953) will yield factor scores (indices) which can be used to classify all of the subunits of a given area. Image analysis will be especially useful in combining the grouping of derived components for each class of indicators into a set of factors. This procedure is more general than factor analysis (Guttman, 1953) and allows computation rather than estimation of factor scores.

This evaluation design should permit us to extrapolate any variation in performance between the strata to other schools within the given strata. Such an outcome would be of obvious value in planning more extensive diffusion efforts.

Elementary School Social Science Project Evaluation Model.

The goals of the Elementary project are twofold; first, to assess the effectiveness of the curriculum materials and instructional strategies; second, to investigate a number of hypotheses with respect to the process of political socialization. Stated differently, does the curriculum achieve what it intends to, and what are the other significant effects on the children? Experience of the chief investigator in another project indicates that most of the measures will have to be created. In a few instances, standardized measures can be used and adapted. The several instruments and techniques which hold promise are indicated. The dimensions to be investigated are listed below.

Substantive Cognitive Learning. These outcomes include the concepts, social science generalizations, and data. We will rely on project-created paper and pencil tests as well as standardized achievement tests normally employed by the schools. Since there is a major interest in concept development, especially in the political sector, there are aspects of recent work in the area of political socialization that will be of some assistance here. For instance, parts of the instruments used reported by Hess and Torney (1965) look promising, as well as Newmann's (1965) techniques of measuring concepts of authority.

Intellectual Process-Cognitive Learning. Since a major goal of the project is to teach students a strategy for analyzing social and political issues, this is a major focus of the evaluation program. Berlak (1966) in a recent paper has shown the deficiencies of paper and pencil instruments used for this purpose, and he suggests that systematic content analysis may be a more powerful and potentially more valid instrument for assessing intellectual process learning outcomes. Systematic content analysis can be used to analyze discourse in small teacher-student groups or in student groups, and in student interviews. The systematic content analysis system that was developed in the Harvard Project is methodologically a variation of the systematic observation work by Bales (1951) and others. Such systems are cumbersome to use and the argument for using a computer system similar to that developed by Stone, Bales, Namenwirth and Olgivie (1962) is very compelling. Ellis (1963) has shown that such systems can be used for the analysis of political discourse and an effort will be made to use this system. However, there are a number of methodological and practical difficulties with automated systems that must be solved.

The Affective Area. There are three types of changes related to the affective area which have been identified. First, some changes in attitudes and values are intended outcomes of the curriculum. For instance, students should become more interested in politics and become committed to active participation in politics. Second, there are affective changes not central to the intent of the curriculum which, nevertheless, may occur. For example, the child's view of authority, institutions, and individuals may be affected by the curriculum. Third, there is a whole set of interactions between cognitive and affective areas which may be explored. For instance, there are likely to be differential effects on the students' affective and cognitive learning which are related to personality differences of the children. It should be emphasized that the curriculum makes no attempt to alter basic personalities of children. In our view, this is not the province of the school curriculum.

Measures for the first and second types of affective outcomes will likely be paper and pencil tests and structured interviews constructed by the project staff. Measures used by several of the investigators in the area of political socialization will be reviewed and, in some instances, adapted. Again, work by Easton and Hess appears to offer promise, as well as several techniques used by Newmann (1965) and Litt (1963). Opinionaires and attitudes scales, similar to the type included in the Purdue Opinion Panel, might be used to gauge changes in attitude formation. (Remmers, 1963). Measures similar to Harris' scale of social responsibility and Epperson's (1963) technique of ascertaining classroom alienation could prove useful. Situational tests, similar to that used by Brock (1963) could provide additional measures in the first two areas. Measures of personality which are necessary for the study of interactions of cognitive and affective areas present a number of difficulties. First, personality inventories for children have serious validity problems. Second, the reading problem in the earlier grades makes the use of these measures questionable. Third, if there are not special safeguards some measures can be an invasion of privacy of the individual. There are, however, a number of attitudinal inventories which may hold some promise and they may be used, guaranteeing anonymity and privacy.

Teacher-Student Interaction Patterns. Analysis of the cognitive and non-cognitive interaction patterns will be conducted through the use of systematic observation and content analysis systems. The system employed for the assessment of individual-thought-process cognitive dimensions is appropriate for assessing these same dimensions as they occur in classroom discourse. B. O. Smith, Taba, and others have developed substantive content analysis and systematic observation systems. However, they do not contain the logical distinctions which are necessary for categorizing complex discourse. There are a number of non-cognitive systems that focus largely on affective or communication-management variables. For instance, the work of Flanders (1961), Bellack (1963), Oliver and Shaver's (1963) variation of Bales' (1951) work. Although non-cognitive teaching variables are important in the evaluation we have made in these interaction patterns, no decision on whether we shall use these systems has been made.

Teacher Variables. The effect of a curriculum on students will vary according to teacher difference. Statistical control of teacher effect will be used where appropriate and interview techniques and less formal participant observation techniques will be employed to develop some hypotheses as to the effect of teacher differences. In addition, there will be attempts to describe with some precision the teacher behavior in the experimental teaching.

This is a comprehensive evaluation plan for both the Implementation and the Elementary School Social Science Curriculum Development Projects. For brevity many details have been omitted. Yet it is clear that any evaluation plan is no better than the instruments which are employed. Since there is a dearth of valid and reliable instruments for curricular evaluation, the project staffs are left to creating many of their own. This is time consuming and often results in the use of instruments which are not completely adequate. However imperfect this process of systematic evaluation, it is preferable to relying solely on intuition.

SUMMARY

The Developmental Activities Grant of the United States Office of Education provided funds for developing a comprehensive plan for the establishment of the Metropolitan St. Louis Social Studies Center. From the beginning, the first charge of the Center has been clear--to provide the leadership and support necessary for the systematic implementation of innovations in the teaching of the social sciences in the public and private schools of the metropolitan St. Louis area. The second charge of the Center was to develop new social studies teaching materials and instructional strategies in an area or areas where there was great need. The grant from the U. S. Office of Education, augmented by funds from the Educational Council for Resposible Citizenship (of St. Louis), enabled the Center, with the help of persons from the schools, to complete an eighteen month study which analyzed the complex problem of innovating new curricula in the schools. Support from federal and local sources also permitted the Center to initiate whatever Curriculum Analysis and Implementation programs were possible with the funds available. In addition, the Center staff became convinced that the teaching of the social studies in the elementary school was seriously inadequate, and began work on a proposal for a new grade one through six curriculum. The final report, a summary of the eighteen months' work, adresses itself separately to the two goals of the Center. First, the report analyzes the problems associated with the implementation of innovation in the teaching of the social studies in the schools and provides a detailed plan for confronting some of these problems. Second, the report analyzes some of the inadequacies and problems of teaching the social sciences to elementary school children in a democratic society and makes a detailed proposal for a new curriculum emphasis in the social studies.

Analysis of the Problem of Disseminating and Implementing New Social Studies Curricula.

The problem of effecting changes in the teaching of the social sciences in the schools are discussed with reference to the social studies curriculum projects, the schools, and the universities. The social studies curriculum projects themselves, while they are a source of ideas and materials which can lead to major improvement in the teaching of the social sciences, present a number of problems for the schools. In most instances, they have not adequately clarified their underlying rationale, nor have they, to date, provided sufficient information about the uses and potential of the materials they create. Most projects have not made any provision for dissemination and implementation of their

materials and, at present, it is almost impossible for schools to get access to the results of these projects. The schools also continue to experience a number of difficulties not easily overcome. Curriculum revision committees, which are appointed at three or five year intervals by school administrators, have failed to achieve many substantive changes in the curriculum. These committees are largely devoted to reordering the sequence and recommending new textbooks. The primary reason for this is that the schools lack the resources to undertake the creation of new texts and materials. Where curriculum coordinators exist, they often lack the staff and the training necessary for creating new teaching materials and teaching strategies. The elementary and secondary teacher is usually not in a position to provide the leadership for curriculum revision, since he is often isolated from social science disciplines and from any intensive colleague relationship with fellow teachers or scholars. Creative leadership has not come from the universities, which could be expected to provide such leadership. The university social scientists and educationists are largely uninvolved in the schools' instructional problems. Professors' contacts are usually by individual consultancies for limited periods of time and usually directed toward the wealthier suburban school districts. In addition, existing patterns of pre-service and in-service teacher training apparently have not led to major change in instructional practices. Each of these problems, and their implications for effecting change in the teaching of the social sciences, is discussed in the report.

Proposal for Establishment of Dissemination and an Implementation Center.

The report proposes an inter-school agency, which in organization and intent is roughly analogous to the agricultural field station. The Metropolitan St. Louis Social Studies Center will create demonstration, implementation and dissemination centers (hereafter called Field Stations) in the schools and integrate into these centers a continuing program for training social studies curriculum leaders. The operation of these model Field Stations is as follows: The Field Station is organized from the metropolitan St. Louis area schools with the assistance of the staff from the Metropolitan St. Louis Social Studies Center (subsequently referred to as the Central Implementation Staff). The "Field Station" consists of two groups of schools: (a) a single school (field school) where the analysis, development and pilot of a curriculum will take place; and, (b) four to six additional schools (radial schools) which engage in the curriculum implementation activities of the Field Station.

A Field Station includes the following persons: One member of the Central Implementation Staff, who has had experience in the schools and is knowledgeable in both the social sciences and in the teaching of social studies. This individual will coordinate and provide the initial leadership for the Field Station. Two master teachers or "clinical associated" from the field school and two master teachers (clinical associates) from each of the radial schools will be selected from the faculties of the seven or eight cooperating schools who have agreed to work cooperatively within a Field Station. In addition, there will be one administrative liaison agent (principal, etc.) from each field and radial school to represent their schools when key administrative decisions must be made. Interns and apprentices from Washington University and other institutions will have an opportunity to acquire some of their training in the Field Station. Finally, social science scholars and evaluation specialists from adjacent universities and colleges will be called in to provide the specialized assistance needed in order to conduct systematic analyses of the products of the social science curriculum development projects. These scholars will be called upon to conduct short courses in social science areas related to the curricula that will be implemented. The phases of operation of the Field Station--analysis, development, pilot, and diffusion--are described in detail in the report and the responsibilities for the field station members and the staff of the Social Studies Center are given.

In addition, the supplementary services of the Center are proposed and described. One Field Station has been established and is in its first year of operation. Support for this Field Station has come from the Central Midwestern Regional Educational Laboratory.

Analysis of Need and an Argument for a New Elementary School Social Studies Curriculum.

The argument that there is a need for elementary school social studies program rests on two basic contentions. First, democratic society is characterized by a belief that common man should exercise a high degree of control over political decisions. Second, that contemporary society presently is undergoing massive economic, social and technological changes which are leading to far-reaching changes in our political processes and institutions. The increasing complexity of decision-making in the contemporary world requires a highly educated, sophisticated and concerned citizenry. Yet, what we find is widespread complacency and cynicism in politics and ignorance of our political institutions.

There is an accumulation of recent evidence, which supports a claim made by many political thinkers over the years, that the early childhood years are central to the formation of intelligent, responsible, political men. The importance of these formative years places a serious burden on many agencies within the society, but particularly on the schools which have the formal charge to develop the intellectual faculties of all children so that they may become responsible adults. It is argued that the vitality of a free democratic society rests, in part, upon citizens who possess: (1) common commitment to the values of the Western democratic tradition (though not in agreement on how these values should be translated into specific policy); (2) knowledge of the character of social, political, and economic institutions and the changes which they have and are undergoing; (3) the intellectual ability to judge the adequacy of propositions about social reality, and to resolve disagreements over public policy; and, (4) the willingness to participate in the polity. Further, it is argued that there are factors in contemporary society which are intensifying and making more difficult the realization of these four goals. The increasing intricacy of economic, social, and political issues at the domestic, and the international level places greater demands on the citizenry, as does increasing urbanization and concentration of economic and political power. The writers briefly review present social studies curricula and the new curricula and argue that, in general, there is a need for greater emphasis on these problems.

A Proposal for an Elementary School Social Science Curriculum.

A new elementary school social science curriculum is proposed which deals with the foregoing problems. Five "models" are outlined which are intended to aid in the selection and sequence of content, the writing of teaching materials, and devising teaching strategy. The five models are: (1) model of the interaction of social forces on social structures; (2) the ethical dilemmas of man in a free society; (3) substantive and procedural values of the Western democratic tradition; (4) model of the political and economic system; (5) analytical thought-process model. Each of these models is explained and their implications for a proposed 1-6 sequence is given in detail. In addition, one sample unit (for the fourth grade) is outlined in an effort to demonstrate the practical significance of these models to the selection of content for the elementary school social studies curriculum. The report also recommends an experimental setting, where university social scientists and educationists, in cooperation with the teachers, will write and systematically evaluate the proposed curriculum. At the conclusion of the eighteen-month period of the Developmental Activities grant, this project moved into the operational phase with the cooperation of the St. Louis Public Schools.

Evaluation.

Finally, the report discusses the need for a complete evaluation of both the Dissemination-Implementation and the Elementary curriculum projects. A detailed plan for evaluation of both projects is given. Three categories of outcomes are to be evaluated in the Implementation project: (1) intended outcomes, in terms of teachers, students, and school systems; (2) expected outcomes; and, (3) unintended and unexpected. Examples of the latter include the possibility that a school system may decide to reexamine other parts of the school program as a result of the Field Station experience, or that there may be effects related to the rate of staff turnover, etc. Evaluation will also focus on the changes which take place in students and in the classroom interaction between teachers and students, and among students. Finally, the evaluation program for the Implementation project includes a program for multi-variate stratification of school districts in the Field Stations on school characteristics which will be useful to schools which may be considering adopting innovations which have been piloted within one of the Field Stations.

The evaluation model for the elementary school social science curriculum will focus on three areas. First, an evaluation will be made of the consistency of the curriculum materials with the rationale. Second, an assessment will be made of the effectiveness of the curriculum materials and teaching strategies as they operate within the total classroom environment. The specific dimensions to be evaluated are: (1) substantive cognitive learning; (2) intellectual process-cognitive learning; (3) the affective domain; (4) teacher-student interaction patterns; and, (5) teacher variables. Finally, a number of hypotheses will be investigated regarding the influence of the total school environment and the classroom context on the political socialization of the young.

APPENDIX A:

An Inventory of Instruments for the Evaluation of the Implementation Project

1. A. W. Halpin and D. B. Croft, "Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire," 1963. This instrument was used to evaluate change "climates." Using a sampling of elementary schools as data, the authors invented a typology of change climates. These climates were arranged on a continuum, ranging from "open" (healthy), to "closed" (unhealthy). R. J. Brown replicated the above analysis with a sample of 81 schools from the St. Paul-Minneapolis area. The results were similar to those of the original study. J. H. M. Andrews conducted a similar study, using both elementary and secondary schools in Alberta, Canada.

2. A systematic observation instrument was developed by Cornell, Lindvall, and Saupe (1952). Known as the "Classroom Observation Code Digest," it was intended to "measure differences in classrooms as a means of characterizing differences of school systems." Dimensions in the COCD include differentiation, social organization, pupil initiative, content, variety, competency, and classroom climate-teacher and pupil.

3. There are few empirical measures of the initiation of change in organizations. One such measure is "Organizational Change," a part of a scoring procedure developed for the study of administrative performance of elementary school principals in a simulated school. The study is reported by Griffiths and Frederickson (1962).

4. An instrument to measure the adoption of innovation process, "An Ordinal Scale for Measuring the Adoption Process," developed by R. Mason (1962).

5. The work of J. London in a study of the contributions of adult education to a community may be of value. A questionnaire and a "Depth interview" were developed. A major part of the study was a community survey, and a set of specifications was developed to guard against biased observation by field investigators. (London, 1963)

6. Barker, (1962) in his study of the "psychology of environments" of schools in eastern Kansas, developed a list of "behavioral settings." Instruments included questionnaires and a procedure for content analysis.

7. There were two instruments used in the Brickell (1961) survey of educational innovation in New York's public schools. The first was a 101-column checklist designed to reveal the topography of educational change across the state that could be machine-processed for data analysis, and the second was a program description sheet which asked every school system different questions about three educational innovations.

8. Certain components of a test devised by R. B. Brumbaugh (1963) might be of value. Brumbaugh's measure is "A test of the effectiveness of certain concepts from reference group theory in predicting teacher-attitude toward school district reorganization."

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